

**COMMUNICATION INDICATORS FOR INTEGRATING DIVERSE
CULTURES IN JUNIOR FEMALE RESIDENCES AT THE UNIVERSITY OF
THE FREE STATE**

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis hereby handed in for the qualification M.A. (Communication Science): Corporate and Marketing Communication at the University of the Free State, is my own independent work and that I have not previously submitted the same work for a qualification at/in another University/faculty.

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SUMMARY OF STUDY

In spite of the fact that the University of the Free State (UFS) has been recognised as a leader in the transformation process in South African higher education, an area of great concern at this institution was the integration of the junior residences. A new policy for increasing diversity in residences was implemented, but three years into the process the residences were still not fully integrated.

Although several aspects could have contributed to the fact that the residence integration was only partially successful, this study focussed on the important role of communication during this change intervention.

Five research questions were addressed. Firstly, the meta-analytical research question explained what the racial integration process in the junior female residences entailed. The contextual research question explored the dimensions of a contemporary organisation impacted by change, and the conceptual research question, explored the fundamental components of change management communication within a contemporary organisational context. The ideal manner in which to communicate change in a contemporary organisational context was addressed by the normative research question, and finally, the theoretical research question addressed the issue of which theoretical communication framework could be suggested to provide indicators for more effective communication during the integration process.

The primary objective of this study was to recommend a theoretical communication framework with indicators that can contribute towards more effective communication during the process of communicating change in the junior female residences at the UFS. The role and quality of the communication used during the management of this change intervention was therefore explored.

Considering the aim of this study, a qualitative approach and grounded theory strategy was used in the research design and the philosophical foundation underlying this study is constructivism. Data gathering was done by in-depth

interviews and focus group sessions. Validity of the study was enhanced through respondent validation.

As the grand theory of this study is based on the general systems theory approach; the Mitroff model (Mitroff *et al.* 1974) of problem solving was applied.

The main theoretical domains relevant to the study are the contemporary organisation and change management communication. As a holistic perspective is deemed essential in order for an organisation to change successfully, the four different dimensions of a contemporary organisation impacted by change were explored. The importance of organisational culture and fact that changing the culture of an organisation should be the first step during a change intervention were highlighted. The essential place of the learning organisation in which constant development of employees are encouraged in order for organisations to survive and adapt in an ever changing environment was emphasised. As the learning organisation can constantly repositioning itself and adapt to changing situations, it was suggested that for the successful implementation of change at different organisational levels, communication activities should be integrated.

The central role of the manager, the important role of leadership communication, the engaging of employees and the sensemaking role of managers, as well as the fact that listening to employees should be regarded as an action step critical to successful change implementation, was discussed. Another important factor often overlooked during change interventions, but playing a critical role during the implementation of change, namely the human factor was also discussed at the micro-emotional level.

It was evident from the data that serious communication problems and a lack of communication existed between different departments, as well as between management and residence management staff. Subsequently the need for a communication framework with indicators was confirmed.

Six main themes surfaced from the data collected. Three of these themes were perceived as being more prominent, namely the role of communication, the management of change, and the consultative intervention.

The conclusions to the study led to the identification of five areas of importance that form the pillars of the communication framework. These are the process and procedures to follow, the people to engage and the principles and policies to guide the process.

Within each of the above mentioned categories indicators were identified that can contribute towards more effective communication during the process of change in the junior female residences at the UFS.

Key concepts:

Contemporary organisation

Systems theory

Grounded theory

Respondent validation

Learning organisation

Change management communication

Leadership communication

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CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW AND GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Residing in a residence is an important part of the university experience for many students. It is in this home away from home that friendships are forged that sometimes last a lifetime. As a result of the changes that took place in South Africa since the democratisation in 1994, the relatively calm waters in which higher education institutions functioned previously has become stormier. Residence life at the University of the Free State (UFS) is no exception to this.

The UFS offers on campus accommodation to approximately 3000 students in 17 junior residences. There are also approximately 350 senior residence spaces available to post graduate and married students or undergraduate students older than 25 years of age (Badenhorst 2010). The University of the Free State is the only university in South Africa that accommodates so many students in such a close proximity. A strong and healthy residence spirit characterises student life on campus and ensures a wonderful campus spirit (UFS facts nd:online).

In line with the democratic government's policies of transformation, the UFS has come a long way in transforming its profile from a previously Afrikaans university to one that accommodates people from all cultural groups. As residences are potentially powerful venues for integrating students' diverse curricular and co-curricular experiences (Marchese 1994), the residences are one of the key areas in the UFS transformation strategy.

Since 1991, the UFS has attempted several times to transform the residences and to integrate the different races in the residences, but without much success. Although several aspects impact on the effectiveness of transformation and change, Grobler and Puth (2002:3) state that special

attention should be paid to the management of communication within a changing environment. Change is now widely accepted as an inevitable consequence affecting modern management. Practitioners from various disciplines are required to take responsibility for the management of change and its resultant transitions.

Grobler and Puth (2002:5) state further that two of the major reasons for both the private and public sector's inability to effectively manage change is firstly, that the importance of communication is either totally ignored or secondly, that communication is only viewed as a tool to bring about change. As a tool in change management, communication is either used to inform employees about change interventions and then to control the change intervention; or it is used to change the organisational culture in order to adapt to the changing environment. Although changing the culture of an organisation is the first step in the change process, organisations fail to perceive the management of communication as an important resource in the management of change. Attempts at managing change in organisations often fail because organisations do not see communication as strategic function or resource. It is against this background that the research problem of this study evolved.

The UFS is recognised as a leader in the transformation process in South African higher education and has been lauded by former President Nelson Mandela for its transformation and language policies. In 2009 Professor Jonathan Jansen was appointed as the first black rector at the UFS (UFS facts nd: online). Despite the many success stories of the UFS regarding transformation, one area of concern is the integration of the UFS residences. On 8 June 2007, The Council of the UFS approved a new policy for increasing diversity in residences. Unfortunately now, in 2010 the resident integration statistics still show that residences are far from fully integrated (Badenhorst 2010:1-2). The dilemma faced by the UFS is to determine why the implementation of the placement policy is not succeeding in achieving its objectives. Although several aspects could contribute to the challenge in

implementing the new policy, this study will focus on the role of communication in the process.

There are many factors that have to be taken into account when instituting change; the features of communication networks that relate to the management of change, the review of alternative communication strategies, the effect of interpersonal relations on the quality of communication, the culture of the organisation, and factors that can deprive managers of access to vital information are to name a few (Hayes 2007:177). However, communication is a key process that can influence how effectively an organisation adjusts to change. Communication of the vision of an organisation has a vital role to play in leading change. The nature of collective learning is affected by the structures and processes that facilitate or inhibit individuals and groups sharing the meanings they construct for themselves as they encounter new ideas and experience meanings (Hayes 2007:177). There is therefore no doubt that effective organisational communication is a critical success factor in business today. Effective communication is like the glue that keeps an organisation together, and without it there will be no structure, no cohesion and everybody will run in different directions. It is thus clear that the quality of communication can have an important impact on the success or otherwise of a change programme (Hayes 2007:177).

1.2 IDENTIFICATION OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The intent of a research problem in qualitative research is to provide a rationale or need for studying a particular issue or problem. As suggested by Barritt (1986, in Creswell 2007:102), the rationale “is not the discovery of new elements, as in scientific study, but rather the heightening of awareness for experience that has been forgotten or overlooked. By heightening awareness and creating dialogue, it is hoped research can lead to a better understanding

of the way things appear to someone else and through that insight lead to improvements in practice”.

According to Welman and Kruger (1999:13) a research problem can be described as certain problems that researchers encounter within the context of theoretical and practical situations, as well as the search for a solution. The problem under investigation in this study is the partial failure of the cultural integration process in residences as most of the traditionally white residences have reached their integration goals, while traditionally “black” residences have still not reached their transformation goals, or are still not integrated at all. The integration of different cultures in junior female residences has therefore not been successful at all residences of the UFS. During 2007, most residences on campus were traditionally inhabited by either white- or black students, as students chose to live in residences on the principle of freedom of association. The new policy proposed that first year placements had to be an expected 70 % own race and 30% other race during 2008 and 2009 admission and in 2010 an equal 50/50 mix. The current integration statistics are an indication of integration over the past three years. These figures show that in the traditionally black residences the ratio between black and white integrated students is 92.4% black residents (own race) in relation to 8.1% white residents (other race). In traditionally white residences the figures look significantly better as the ratio is 64.7% white (own race) and 35.4% other race (Badenhorst 2010:1-2).

There are many factors that can contribute to this problem, one of which the way that the communication in the organisation was managed during this process of change implementation. The essence of this problem might have been the fact that no theoretical communication framework existed to provide indicators according to which the process could be managed. The research problem discussed in this section gives rise to certain research questions. In the next section these questions will be addressed.

1.3 FORMULATION OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Babbie and Mouton (2001:79) state that three of the most common and useful purposes of social research are exploration, description and explanation. The explorative approach provides a basic familiarity with the topic and is typical when a researcher explores a new interest or when the study itself is relatively new. A descriptive approach implies that a researcher scientifically and deliberately observes situations and events in order to describe them as accurate as possible. The third general purpose of scientific research is to explain things. The main aim of explanatory studies is to indicate causality between variables of events. According to Neuman (1997:18) studies may have multiple purposes. This study includes elements of all the approaches mentioned above.

Mouton (2001:53-55) is of opinion that research problems are formulated in the form of questions as a way of focusing the research problem. Marshall and Rossman (2006, in Creswell 2007:107) recognise the following four types of research questions: Exploratory (e.g. to investigate phenomenon little understood), explanatory (e.g. to explain patterns related to the phenomenon), descriptive (e.g. to describe the phenomenon), and emancipatory (e.g. to engage in social action about the phenomenon). Mouton (2001) identifies four typical non-empirical questions, namely: The meta-analytical question, addressing the state of the art concerning the research topic or the key domain of the research topic; the conceptual question, that explains the meaning of the concept under investigation; the theoretical question that addresses the most plausible theories or models of the subject or the most convincing explanations thereof; and the philosophical/normative question that asks what the ideal profile of the subject is. In this study a fifth question is added that pertains to the context within which the concept under investigation is found. The reason for this addition is because the context has a great impact on the phenomenon being studied.

- **Meta-analytical research question:** What does the racial integration process in junior female residences on the UFS campus entail? (Explanatory)
- **Contextual research question:** What are the dimensions within a contemporary organisational context impacted by change (Exploratory)
- **Conceptual research question:** What are the fundamental components of change management communication within a contemporary organisational context? (Exploratory)
- **Normative research question:** What is the ideal manner in which to communicate change in a contemporary organisational context? (Descriptive)
- **Theoretical research question:** Which theoretical communication framework can be suggested to provide indicators for more effective communication during the integration of diverse cultures in junior female residences at the UFS? (Emancipatory)

1.4 THE GOAL AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Against this background, the goal of this study is to formulate a theoretical communication framework that will provide indicators for more effective communication towards the successful integration of diverse cultures in junior female residences at the UFS (answering the theoretical research question).

To address this goal, the following objectives are set:

- To explain the racial integration process in junior female residences on the UFS campus (meta-analytical research question)
- To explore the dimensions of a contemporary organisation that is impacted by change (contextual research question)

- To describe the nature, role and scope of change management communication taking place within a contemporary organisation (conceptual research question)
- To describe the ideal manner in which to communicate change in a contemporary organisation (normative research question).

1.5 DELIMITATION OF STUDY

The delimitations of a study are those characteristics that limit the scope of the enquiry as determined by the conscious exclusionary and inclusionary decisions that were made throughout the development of the proposal. The delimitations therefore “sets the boundaries” of a particular study (Creswell 1994:110).

This study explores the change management communication used during the integration of the junior female residences in a contemporary organisation namely the UFS. The measurement of the management communication thus relates to communication performance in two divisions (Student Affairs and Accommodation Services) and not the organisation as a whole as the UFS is a large, multi-faceted organisation consisting of academic and non-academic divisions. The feasibility of conducting the study in more than the divisions directly responsible for residences was questioned. Access to the many different departments would also have been problematic and extremely time consuming.

Furthermore, this study focuses exclusively on the role and quality of the communication used during the integration process. Other issues such as the role and style of leadership, as well as the perspectives of different cultural groups and many other factors could also have contributed to the problems faced during the integration of the residences. Although leadership style influences communication, the focus in this study is on the communication used during the integration process. When reference is made to leadership

style or approach, it is done from a communication perspective. As the main objective of this study is to develop a communication framework with indicators for successful communication during change, these areas were not investigated.

1.6 DETAILS OF THE PRELIMINARY STUDY

A review of existing local and international literature regarding diversity and cultural integration in university residences showed that very little research has been done in this field. Available studies are especially from an American context and focus on a wide range of topics addressing amongst others, factors affecting recruitment and retention of entry level housing and residential life staff (Onge *et al.* 2008:10); the relationship of disordered eating behaviours of undergraduate women, their living environment, and their academic standing (Fulcher & Janosik 2008:34) and a study by Brandon, Hirt and Cameron (2008) called “Where You Live Influences Who You Know”.

An investigation by the IGUBU Agency is currently the only existing study specifically aimed at investigating residence integration that exists for a South African context. The IGUBU Agency is a consultancy that was appointed by the UFS management to assist them with the integration of the residences. Other existing studies focus more broadly on the management of diversity in institutions as a whole (Keil 2005) or on management of faculty programmes (Rothstein-Fisch *et al.* 2008).

A study done by the UFS Department of Development and Success was directed to monitor the racial integration processes of residences on the main campus of the UFS in Bloemfontein, and examined the social distance and social dominance orientation of first year residents at the UFS. The extent to which students entering the higher education environment are intolerant of group domination and in favour of distance between ethnic groups, was measured (Strydom & Mentz 2008).

The student Life Report (2005) done by Matthew Kruger Consultancy (MKC) aimed to determine the current status of, as well as provide recommendations for improvement of student life regarding the first year integration, with specific reference to peer pressure and later alcohol use and misuse; negative aspects regarding the integration of multi-culturalism; alcohol related practices; the role of house committees; the role of residence heads; the possible existence of subcultures that promote certain group or individual problem or deviant behaviour; the role of senior students; and the role of senior bond committees (Student Life Report: 2005:1). Both these reports indicate limitations to diversity and integration in residences, as well as recommendations to further diversity and racial integration on campus although the focus was not purely on residence life. There is therefore currently no research that focuses primarily on the role of communication in cultural integration and transformation in university residences.

1.7 NECESSITY OF THE STUDY

As mentioned previously, the UFS has been praised for its transformational successes. However, the transformation of the UFS residences has, since the first attempt at integrating diverse cultures in the residences, not reached the desired goals. This should be an area of concern to top management as, in recent years, there has been a growing dissatisfaction and even vandalism by residence students, due to unhappiness because of lack of communication, as well as misunderstanding and unrealistic expectations between the UFS management, residence management and these students (Cloete 2008:2). Dissatisfied or unhappy clients, in this instance the students, can threaten the very existence of the university as without them the university would not exist. Their unhappiness can also spill over to the rest of the activities of the university – as happened with the unrest referred to above.

Although a holistic approach is necessary to address transformational issues, insight with regard to the communication process and ways to improve on previous attempts can make a contribution, not only to the UFS, but to all organisations struggling with change interventions.

It is acknowledged that there are several aspects that have an influence on the successful integration of diverse cultures in the UFS residences of which communication is but one. However, as communication is essential for an organisation's survival, this study will aspire to create a theoretical communication framework with specific indicators to contribute towards this process.

In the next section the way in which the research will be conducted, will be explained.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN

The term, research design, refers to the entire process of research from conceptualising a problem to writing research questions, on to data collection, analysis, interpretation, and report writing (Bogdan & Taylor 1975, in Cresswell 2007:249). Yin (2003, in Cresswell 2007:5) commented: "The design is the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to a study's initial research questions and, ultimately, to its conclusions".

According to Levy (2000:371) the essence of the research design should be to determine the paradigm and methods to be employed to best solve the research problem. However, an understanding of the basic philosophical assumptions of the research underlies all the decisions in the paradigm and methods (Woods & Trexler 2000:293). The theoretical underpinning of the research should present a framework and justify the paradigm and the methods employed (Esterberg 2002:10). As indicated in figure 1.1 the philosophical foundation, research paradigm and methods constitute the three elements of research design (Levy 2000:372).

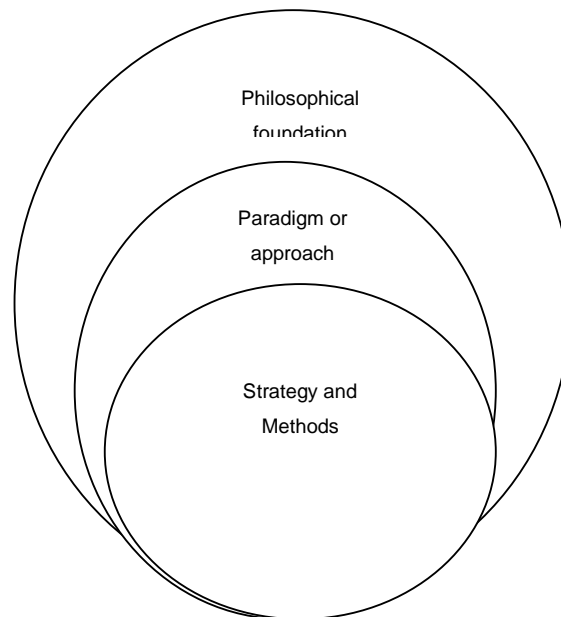


Figure 1.1: The elements of the research design (Adapted from Levy 2000)

The purpose of the three elements of the research design is to ensure the soundness of the research and to shape the methodologies and methods employed in the research (Crotty 1998:5). Sim and Wright (2000:27) indicate that through different elements of the research design, the researcher will provide a better perspective on the research project.

1.8.1 Philosophical foundation

Constructivism is described as a dynamic and social process in which individuals actively construct meaning from their experiences in connection with their prior understandings and social settings (Driver, Asoko, Leach, Mortimer & Scott 1994).

Qualitative researchers approach their studies with a certain world view. This is a basic set of beliefs or philosophical assumptions guiding their enquiries for consulting “valid” research results (Creswell 1998:74). Philosophical

foundations signify “a basic set of beliefs that guide actions taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry” (Guba 1990:17). Philosophical assumptions are based on certain universal characteristics, comprising subjects as “matter, mind, truth, the nature of knowledge and the proofs for knowledge” (Crossan 2002:48). Philosophical assumptions (see 1.9) present the framework for helping the researcher decide what research methods to apply (Esterberg 2002:10).

1.8.2 Research paradigm and approach

The nature of reality, based on the philosophical foundation, determines whether a study should follow a quantitative or qualitative methodology (Crossan 2002:48). According to Strauss and Corbin (1990:17) qualitative research is defined as “any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by any means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification”. Quantitative research on the other hand is based on statistical procedures in which large samples are used to allow results to be generalised to the population under study (Wimmer & Dominick 2006).

Cresswell (2002:1-2) defines the qualitative paradigm as an investigative process of understanding a social or human problem, founded on creating a complex, holistic picture. According to Cresswell (2002:4), the qualitative paradigm can also be termed the constructivist or naturalistic approach, the interpretive approach, or the positivist or postmodern perspective.

The phrase qualitative methodology refers in its broadest sense to research that produces descriptive data – people’s own written or spoken words and observable behaviour. Qualitative researchers are concerned with the meanings people attach to things in their lives. Understanding people from their own frames of reference and experiencing reality as they experience it, is central to this perspective. Qualitative researchers emphasise and identify with the people they study in order to understand how those people see things (Taylor & Bogdan 1998:7).

Creswell (2007:37) states that qualitative research begins with assumptions, a worldview, the possible use of a theoretical lens, and the study of research problems inquiring into the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. To study these problems, qualitative researchers use an emerging qualitative approach to inquiry, the collection of data in a natural setting sensitive to the people and places under study, and data analysis that is inductive and establishes patterns or themes. Payne and Payne (2004:176) support this view and suggest that qualitative research sets out to study the social world as it occurs in its natural settings, while it operates at a less abstract and more generalised level of explanation. The final written report or presentation includes the voices of participants, the reflexivity of the researcher, and a complex description and interpretation of the problem and it extends the literature or signals a call for action (Cresswell 2007:37).

The following characteristics of qualitative research were identified:

- It is holistic in nature. This implies that it aims at understanding the whole (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh 2002:426).
- It is predisposed to inductive reasoning (Shermin & Webb 1988:5). Qualitative research starts with observation to determine a pattern from which a tentative hypothesis or theory is derived, while further observation culminates in final construction of the theory (Ary *et al.* 2002:430).
- It is descriptive. The researcher is interested in describing the process or phenomenon, while understanding and meaning are attained through words (Marshall & Rossman 1999:33). Through descriptive studies, new meaning can be discovered, as well as the frequency with which a phenomenon occurs. This leads to the categorisation of information (Burns & Groove 1999:31).

- It is interpretive, as it aims at determining the “how” and the “what” of a phenomenon from the point of view of those involved (Silverman 1997:121).
- It is contextual, as it takes place within a specific context, which lies within a broader context of paradigms and disciplines (Mouton & Marais 1990:17).

As this study aims at highlighting a theoretical communication framework that could contribute towards the successful implementation of racial integration in junior female residences, and providing indicators for improving communication during change management within an intercultural context, the qualitative approach is deemed the most appropriate for this particular study. The characteristics of qualitative research discussed in the previous section are all relevant to this study.

1.8.3 Research strategy

According to Glaser and Strauss (1978, in Taylor & Bogden 1998:136-137), the grounded theory approach is designed to enable researchers to discover new theory, concepts, hypotheses and propositions directly from data rather than from prior assumptions, other research, or existing theoretical frameworks. Glaser and Strauss (1967) state that social scientists have over emphasised testing and verifying theories and have neglected more important activity of generating theory.

Leedy and Ormrod (2001:154) define grounded theory as follows: “In the grounded theory approach data is collected from the basis or ‘ground’ for the development of a model”. Charmaz (2006:2) confirms this stating that “grounded theory methods consist of systematic, yet flexible guidelines for collecting and analysing qualitative data to construct theories ‘grounded’ in the data themselves. The guidelines offer a set of general principles and heuristic

devices rather than formulaic rules. Thus, data form the foundation of our theory and our analysis of these data generates the concepts we construct.”

Grounded theory is a widely used approach in qualitative research. Grounded theory is a “qualitative research method that uses a systematic set of procedures to develop an inductively derived theory about a phenomenon” (Strauss & Corbin 1990, in Neuman 2006:60). The purpose of grounded theory is to build a theory faithful to the evidence. It is a method for discovering new theory. In it, the researcher compares unlike phenomena with a view toward learning similarities. He or she sees micro-level events as the foundation for a more macro-level explanation. It seeks theory that is comparable with the evidence that is precise and rigorous, capable of replication, and generalisable. A grounded theory approach pursues generalisations by making comparisons across social situations (Neuman 2006:60).

Against this background, a grounded theory approach seems the most relevant to this study. The grounded theory approach is also the preferred choice as the researcher is currently a residence head at a junior female residence and a concurrent programme of data collection through in-depth interviews, focus groups, attendance of staff meetings, as well as training sessions and workshops are possible. The grounded theory approach will assist the researcher in the development of a theoretical communication framework to provide indicators for more effective integration.

As grounded theory is chosen as research strategy, the total research design will be explained in this chapter, of the research methods already starts with the literature review. The literature is not given a position of privilege when compared to data. It is treated as data, with the same status as other data. Relevant literature will be accessed as it becomes relevant. In short, a progressive accessing and reading of relevant literature will become part of the data collection procedures (Dick 2001; Glaser 1978).

1.8.4 Data gathering methods

Lindlof (1995:169) describes the interview as a remarkable research tool that can be of great use in grounded theory. In this study, in-depth interviews and focus group sessions will be used as primary data collection techniques. As mentioned previously, the researcher is currently a residence head at a junior female residence at the UFS and will therefore conduct a concurrent programme of data collection by attending residence management meetings and staff meetings, as well as training sessions and workshops.

An in-depth interview fosters eliciting each participant's interpretation of his or her experience. The interviewer seeks to understand the topic and the interview participant has the relevant experiences to shed light on it (Charmaz 2006:25).

Taylor and Bogden (1998:87-88) is of opinion that social scientists rely largely on verbal accounts to learn about social life. Qualitative interviewing is flexible and dynamic, and has been referred to as non-directive, unstructured, non-standardised, and open-ended interviewing.

Focus groups create settings in which diverse perceptions, judgments and experiences concerning particular topics can surface. Persons in focus groups are stimulated by the experiences of other members of the group to articulate their own perspectives (Lindlof 1995:174). According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:292) the main advantage of focus groups is the opportunity to observe a large amount of interaction on a topic in a limited period of time based on the researcher's ability to assemble and direct focus groups.

1.8.5 Data analysis

Kotter and Armstrong (2006:11) stipulate that the goal of data analysis is to contribute results that would provide knowledge as to solving the research problem and therefore help with the process of making a decision. These

authors explain further analysis involves looking for clues, specifically to determine how people interact with sensory social clues.

This study uses the grounded theory method as research strategy. Grounded theory uses detailed procedures for analysis. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990 & 1998, in Cresswell 2007:160), it consists of three phases of coding, namely open-, axial- and selective coding. Charmaz (2006:43,46) states that coding means categorising segments of data with a short name that simultaneously summarises and accounts for each piece of data. The researcher's codes show how data was selected, separated and sorted to begin an analytic account of the data. Coding is the pivotal link between collecting data and developing an emergent theory to explain these data. Coding enables the researcher to define what is happening and to establish what the meaning of it is. Two main phases of coding are identified. Firstly, an initial phase where each word, line or segment of data is named. This is followed by a second phase of focused selection that uses the most significant or frequent initial codes to sort, synthesise, integrate, and organise large amounts of data.

In this study, the analytical process will start with (1) initial coding – this is the first step in the coding process and moves on toward later decisions about defining the core conceptual categories. By comparing data with data, it becomes evident what the research participant's view is. The second major phase that will be applied is (2) focused coding. Focused coding entails using the most significant and/or frequent earlier codes to sift through large amounts of data. Deciding which initial codes make most sense to categorise data incisively and completely, is essential at this stage of the coding process.

1.8.6 Sampling method

The selection of the sample of participants to be used in a study needs serious consideration. According to Wellington (2000:73), key informants are those key individuals in the study who have a good understanding of the

issues to be explored. The researcher needs to establish the purpose of the interviews and the perspective from which the key informants will be interviewed. The researcher also needs to become skilled in the task of data retrieval and interpretation, while remaining caring considerate and impartial (Poggenpoel & Myburgh 2003:418).

In this study, theoretical sampling was employed (Charmaz 2006; Dick 2001). Charmaz (2006:189) declares that, when a researcher engages in theoretical sampling he/she seeks people, events, or information to illuminate and define the boundaries and relevance of the categories. Glaser and Strauss (in Melia 1982:329) define theoretical sampling as based upon what they call “saturation of categories”. Data is collected as long – and only as long – as they are adding to the development of a particular category. Once a situation is reached where nothing new is emerging, then the category is deemed saturated. Charmaz (2006:189) calls this phenomenon theoretical saturation.

As categories emerge from the data, the researcher will then seek to add to the sample in such a way that diversity is increased in useful ways. The purpose is to strengthen the emerging theory by defining the properties of the categories, and how these mediate the relationship of category to category. The data-collection and -analysis will be completed when theoretical saturation is obtained (Charmaz 2006). In other words, the process of response-analysis-reconstruction-response continues until no new information is acquired. A non-probability, purposive sample will be used for the in-depth interviews.

The participants of the focus groups and in-depth interviews will be selected based on their specific position at the UFS in relation to the integration of UFS residences. It is important to note that only individuals in management positions on the receiving end of the message will constitute the population from which the sample will be drawn.

The focus groups and in-depth interviews will be conducted with respondents that were part of the residence integration process during the past three years

since the beginning of the integration process in 2008, or are currently part of the process. This will include all female Resident Heads, as well as six (6) male Resident Heads that were part of the focus group sessions. The male Residence Heads were included in the sample as the process was applicable on both the male and female junior residences. Although most male Residence Heads did not reside in the residences as female Residence Heads do, valuable insights could be derived from them. The mentioned respondents will represent the “population” in that they are spokespersons for the topic of inquiry (Henning 2004:71). It is important to note that, as the respondents in the focus groups and interviews were drawn from a relatively small population, some of the respondents took part in both data gathering activities.

1.8.7 Respondent validation

In qualitative research, respondent validation is used by researchers to help improve the accuracy, credibility, validity and transferability of a study (Lincoln & Guba 1985). There are many subcategories of respondent validation, including narrative accuracy checks, interpretive validity, descriptive validity, theoretical validity and evaluative validity (Tanggaard 2008). In respondent validation the interpretation and report (or portion thereof) is given to members of the sample (respondents) in order to check the authenticity of the work. The comments of these individuals serve as a check on the viability of the interpretation.

Respondent validation can be done during or at conclusion of the study, or both during and at the end of the study. Respondent validation completed after a study, is done by sharing all of the findings with the participants involved. This allows respondents to critically analyse the findings and comment on them. The respondents either affirm that the summaries reflect their views, feelings, and experiences, or that they do not reflect these

experiences. The overall goal of this process is to provide findings that are authentic and original (Byrne 2001).

Respondent validation provides the respondents with the opportunity to correct errors and challenge what are perceived as wrong interpretations. This step in research also provides respondents the opportunity to volunteer additional information or to assess the adequacy of the data and preliminary results, as well as to confirm particular aspects of the data. Another advantage of respondent validation is the fact that it lessens the risk of participants reporting at a later stage that the researcher misunderstood their contributions or claim investigative error (Cohen & Crabtree 2006). In a study which renders sensitive data this is a very important aspect.

In this study respondent validation will be employed to check the authenticity of the results. The indicators derived from the data will be presented in a preliminary theoretical communication framework. This framework will be presented to the original respondents of the study to determine if they agree, are neutral to, or disagree with the indicators included in the framework.

1.9 CONCEPTUALISATION AND META-THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A theoretically sound investigation of the issue highlighted in the research problem of the study (see 1.2) is essential. A clarifying discussion is necessary to provide a comprehensive theoretical understanding of the origins of the mentioned problem. It is argued that, in order for an organisation to change successfully, the change initiative must be considered from a holistic perspective and all the different dimensions of an organisation that is impacted by the change must be acknowledged.

The main theoretical domains relevant to this study are the contemporary organisation and change management communication. Each of these theoretical areas consists of a range of sub-fields that influence the mentioned domains, with subsequent theories, which are relevant. Table 1.1 provides a

summary of the meta-theoretical framework and conceptualisation of the study.

Research objective:	To recommend a theoretical communication framework with indicators that can contribute towards the successful integration of diverse cultures in junior female residences at the UFS
Grand theory:	General systems theory Systems approach
World view:	Constructivist paradigm

Theoretical domains:	Contemporary organisations	Change management communication
Sub-fields: (within theoretical domains)	Intrapersonal communication	Organisational dimension
	Interpersonal dimension	Integrated communication
	Organisational dimension	Change communication
	External dimension	Leadership communication

Theories: (from respective Sub-fields within Theoretical domains)	Macro-rational change theory	Two-way symmetrical communication
	Micro-emotional change theory	Transformational leadership theory

Table 1.1 Conceptualisation and meta-theoretical framework

In the following discussion the concepts mentioned in table 1.1 will be explored.

1.9.1 General systems theory

The grand theory that this study is based on, is the general systems theory. The systems thinking perspective is therefore adopted. Systems theory is considered in many quarters to be the dominant perspective in current thinking about organisations and their management (Stacey, Griffin & Shaw, 2000). According to Luhmann (1986, 1995 in Hendry & Seidl 2003:179) the basic element of all social systems is communication, or the syntheses of utterance, information and understanding. For Luhmann, social systems are systems of communications in which the communications themselves determine what further communications occur. This conceptualisation of social systems as composed of communications has implications for the question of change. Since communications cannot be treated as the products of individual actors but only as the products of the communication processes themselves, social change has to be explained on the basis of the logic of the communication system (Hendry & Seidl 2003:179).

The notion that organisations are systems of inter-related elements embedded in, and strongly influenced by, a larger system is not new.

Research findings suggest a link between the internal characteristics of an organisation and the external environment (Stalker 1961, Lawrence & Lorsch 1967, in Hayes 2007:45). Open systems theory predicts that changes to any of the internal or external elements of an organisation's system will cause changes to other elements. In order to understand the performance of an organisation one must view it as a system of interconnected choices (Siggelkow 2001, in Hayes 2007:47). Kotter (1980, in Hayes 2007:47) elaborates this proposition when he developed his integrative model of organisational dynamics.

Miller (2006:85) states, in what she calls a new area of systems research named “new science” systems theory, that systems in the new sciences are complex and adaptive systems in which order can emerge from disorder. New science systems are not always logical and neither always predictable. This approach to systems emphasises the importance of complexity, fluctuating information, and the innovativeness that can emerge when a system is at “the edge of chaos”.

Two main areas of study were identified in order to approach the research question under consideration in this study. They are the contemporary organisation and change management communication. These theoretical domains are interlinked. The UFS is a multi-cultural academic institution that is managed as a business and is currently in the process of integrating junior residences. The changing environment calls for effective change management communication. Organisational communication in a changing environment is the basis for the focus of this study and a model will be developed for the improvement of communication at the UFS as an institution in the midst of rapid change.

1.9.1.1 *Systems approach and systems theory*

The social systems approach to exploring an organisation is a comprehensive, multidimensional, descriptive perspective on an organisation. System theorists assert that all organised entities demonstrate similar sets of properties and patterns. Systems theory developed as a means of describing the sets of properties and patterns that enable an organisation to occur. Systems theory provides a powerful descriptive model of organisational processes (Kreps 1990:93). In general systems theory, the organisation is seen as a complex set of interdependent parts that interact to adapt to a constantly changing environment in order to achieve its goals (Kreps 1990:94).

In order to meet the goal and objectives of this study, the research process is based on the Mitroff model (Mitroff, Betz, Pondy & Sagasti 1974). This model guides the researcher through the process of studying a phenomenon in science from a holistic or systems point of view. Although this model was formulated in 1974, it has been successfully applied on numerous occasions in management sciences (Koornhof 2001; Niemann 2005), and it will be applied in this study to define the scope of the research, provide guidance in structuring the research and identify the processes and stages that should be followed. As the grand theory of this study is based on the systems theory, the Mitroff model will be used as guiding principle, as this model, which is also based on the systems theory is deemed the appropriate model for this specific study (Mulder 2008:18).

There is a need for frameworks and models that provide an understanding of the way in which a total system of organisational behaviour functions, and therefore a holistic approach is encouraged by Nadler and Tushman (1980, in Hayes 2007:44). Hayes (2007) identifies some of the main characteristics of organisations as seen from an open systems perspective. They are (1) organisations are embedded within a larger system, (2) organisations are able to avoid entropy, (3) organisations are regulated by feedback, (4) they are subject to equifinality, (5) organisations are cyclical in their mode of functioning, (6) organisations are equilibrium seeking, and (7) organisations are bounded.

According to interactional theorists any useful insight into communication must consider the contexts in which it occurs, because contexts affect communication and what it means. Group-leaders, so-called dysfunctional individuals, or conflict episodes cannot be understood unless they are examined in the contexts of the relationships in which they exist (Hayes 2007:162).

1.9.1.2 The Mitroff model for problem solving in systems thinking

The purpose of the model (Mitroff *et al.* 1974:46) is to outline the processes involved in a research inquiry. This model was used to lay the groundwork for conceptualising research inquiry from a whole systems perspective. The researcher is thus motivated to deal with complexities of science in a systematic way. Koornhof (2001) and Niemann (2005) postulates that the Mitroff model assists the researcher to document the various steps in the research process and allow the researcher to identify and follow those steps that are appropriate in the research. Mitroff *et al.* (1974:46) argue that certain aspects of science can only be studied from a whole systems perspective and that anything less than a holistic view of science will fail to pick up certain of science's most essential characteristics. According to Niemann (2005), the model identifies the different phases of problem-solving, and highlights various research approaches, styles and attitudes towards science.

The graphic illustration in diagram 1.1 represents a simple whole systems view of the activity of problem-solving.

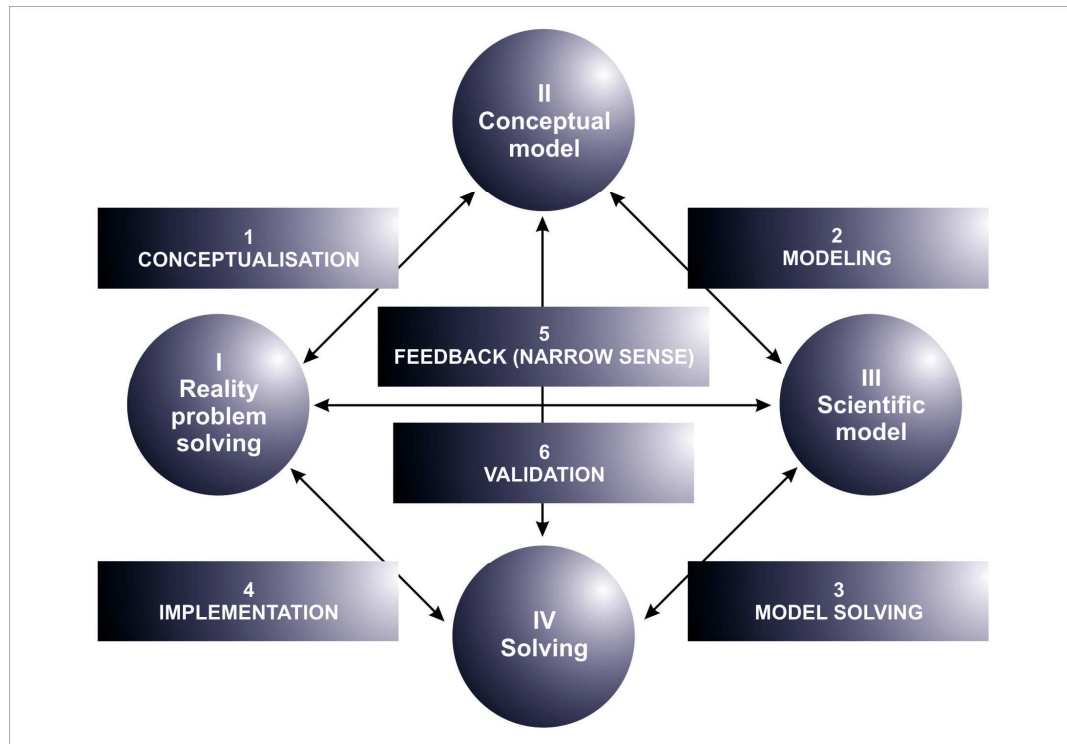


Diagram 1:1 Mitroff's systems view of problem-solving (Mitroff *et al.* 1974:47), adapted by Niemann (2005:14).

The Mitroff model consists of four elements and six paths. In the figure, the four circles represent the four elements (I, II, III, IV) and the essence of the model. These elements are “Reality problem solving”, “Conceptual model”, “Scientific model”, and “Solving”. Closely related to these elements are the six paths, described in diagram 1.1. These paths or activities are conceptualisation, modelling, model solving, implementation, feedback and validation. Viewed from a systems perspective, there is no simple “starting” or “ending” points in this model. The process can begin at any point in the diagram.

According to (Mitroff *et al.* 1974:47) the arrow or path from the circle labeled “Conceptual model” (circle ii) is meant to indicate that the “first phase” of problem-solving consists of formulating a conceptual model of the problem

situation. The conceptual model sets up the definition of the problem that has to be solved. The field variables that are used to define the nature of the problem are specified, as well as the level at which the variables are treated. According to the Mitroff model, the second phase entails the formulation of a scientific model (circle III). Models are simplifications used to make complex concepts more comprehensible.

The third phase concerns the performance of activity (three) 3 to derive a solution from the scientific model. Niemann (2005:15) argues that the aim of social science is to provide a solution to a specified problem. The implementation or utilisation of the solution to the problem area in practice (activity 4) gives feedback of the solution to the original problem stated and entails activity 5 in the model. Validation is the last phase. Here the degree of correspondence between reality and the developed scientific model is evaluated. The comparison between the scientific model and reality may take place repeatedly until the scientific model is refined to reflect the necessary aspects of reality (Mitroff *et al.* 1974:51; Niemann 2005:16).

1.9.1.3 Applying the Mitroff model to this study

As the Mitroff model implies that legitimate research need not address all the activities and elements in the model (Niemann 2005:16), the scope of this study will only cover the first three circles of the model (Reality problem situation, Conceptual model and Scientific Model) and then the path (Conceptualisation 1 and Modelling 2) that connects them. Circle I represents the first phase of the research methodology of the study (see 1.7). The second phase, namely the identification of indicators that can lead to more effective communication for the successful integration of female residences, materialise in Circle II. Circle III refers to the respondent validation of the suggested model. Within the scope of this study, the indicators can be used to develop a model that will be conceptual in nature and will have been validated by the respondents in order to continue to circle IV (Solving). Thus,

in the first phase of the current research (exploring the literature on contemporary organisations), the activity of reality problem solving took place. This in turn led to the next phase (circle II) where the conceptualisation of the indicators took place (formulating communication indicators for more effective integration of different races in residences at the UFS). In circle III the model is presented to the respondents to determine the authenticity of the suggested framework.

1.9.2 The world view

All qualitative researchers have principles and beliefs that shape how they see the world and act in it (Bateson, in Denzin & Lincoln 1994:1). The network that contains the researcher's epistemological (What is the relationship between the inquirer and the known?); ontological (What kind of being is the human being? What is the nature of reality?); and methodological (How do we know the world or gain knowledge of it?) premises may be termed paradigm (Guba 1990:17). A paradigm or interpretive framework forms a basic set of beliefs that guides action. According to Guba (1990:17) each interpretive paradigm makes particular demands on the researcher, including the questions that are asked and the interpretations that are brought to them. Four major interpretive paradigms structure qualitative research, namely positivist and post-positivist, constructivist-interpretive, critical (Marxist, emancipatory), and feminist post-structural.

This study is conducted within a *constructivist paradigm*. This paradigm assumes a relativist ontology (there are multiple realities), a subjectivist epistemology (the knower and subject create understandings), and a naturalistic (in the natural world) set of methodological procedures. According to Charmaz (2002:677) constructivist analysts view data and analysis as created from the shared experiences of the researcher and participants and the researcher's relationship with participants. This is a view shared by Henning (2004:115).

1.9.3 Theoretical domains

In this study an *interactional approach to communication* will be adopted. Communication is seen as a process, not a structure. It is inherently interactive, adaptive and transactional, and it evolves. It is regarded as the process by which meaning is shared and association is built up in the formation of groups and cultures, and by which interpersonal transaction, social position, action status and power are manifested, changed and, in some cases, diminished. The interactional view does not describe communication as an entity or activity that exists apart from people and their interactions. At the core of organisations are communicating, interacting and transacting individuals who actively shape their own behaviour.

Against this background, the theoretical domains within the paradigm of the systems theory in this study are the contemporary organisation, and change management communication. It is reasoned that the contemporary organisation forms the context within which both integrated communication and leadership communication are practised. It is further argued that a contemporary organisation is a constantly changing organisation. Van Tonder (2010:49) opines that contemporary theories suggest a more naturalistic and less controlled (i.e. organic) form of change, which is anchored in the view that organisations are organic and have within them the seeds of self-organisation despite increasing complexity and the likelihood of chaos. Furthermore, as all organisations in South Africa function in a multi-cultural environment and consist of employees from different cultural backgrounds, intercultural communication is part and parcel of a contemporary South African organisation. Finally, it is reasoned that to be effective in a changing environment, management should act as leaders and not as managers, thus the focus on leadership communication. These theoretical domains and their constructs will be elaborated on in chapters three and four.

1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION

This study unfolds in six chapters (including the current one). In chapter one a general orientation to, and rationale for the study was given. Issues addressed in this chapter included inter alia the purpose, focus and value of the study. The conceptual framework and meta-theoretical approach underlying the study were described. Furthermore, the necessity of the research and broad details of the research methodology of the study were discussed. The meta-theory of the research methodology used in this study was also included in chapter one. As grounded theory is employed as research strategy, it is considered necessary to give an overview of the research design and methods at the onset of the study. The data collection and -analysis technique used was therefore also discussed and the sampling design explored.

The meta-analytical research question is addressed in chapter two. The higher education environment, and more specifically the University of the Free State as institution and its current practices with regard to the integration of diverse cultures in campus residences, will be explained. The integration strategy implemented in residences since 2007 forms the core of this chapter.

The focus of chapter three is on the contextual research question. In this chapter an overview of the four dimensions of a contemporary organisation that is influenced by change will be explored. These four dimensions constitute the context within which change is manifested. The importance of the contemporary organisation as learning organisation is highlighted in this chapter.

In chapter four, an overview of change management communication will be provided. This aspect addresses the conceptual research question. Issues highlighted in this chapter include perspectives and theoretical frameworks of change, types of change, effective management of change, the role of management in communicating organisational change, and aspects pertaining

to the implementation of change. Leadership communication is also discussed in depth.

The pen ultimate chapter (chapter five) provides the results of the personal interviews and the focus group discussions held. The aim of this phase of the study is to identify challenges and opportunities related to the communication that occurred during the implementation of the integration of diverse cultures in UFS residences. In this chapter the results will be discussed and interpreted against the background of the literature overview in chapters three and four. A theoretical communication framework is suggested and is sent to respondents for respondent validation in order to give respondents the opportunity to validate the accuracy of the researcher's interpretation of the data.

In chapter six the research objectives are dealt with to draw final conclusions and make relevant recommendations. In this chapter a theoretical communication framework is provided that includes indicators that might help to guide more effective communication during the integration process of the UFS residences. Conclusive remarks regarding the communication of change are provided. The chapter further focuses on the basic assumptions and limitations of the study. Suggestions for future research on the use of communication during change are made. This chapter concludes with a critical reflection and summary of the study.

CHAPTER 2

RACIAL INTEGRATION IN JUNIOR FEMALE RESIDENCES AT THE UFS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

South Africa has a unique environment within which universities have to function. The history of apartheid and segregation, and the fact that South Africa has eleven official languages and a diverse variety of cultures are to name but a few of the factors that contribute toward the complexity of the South African situation (Mulder 2008:9).

Moreover, higher education institutions as such, are deeply infused with values derived from their historical history and foundation which have been reproduced almost intact in their core features up to recent years. These values and features are now challenged by a globalisation process which tends to redefine them on a whole new basis and which are clashing (or may be clashing) with the traditional institutionalised values (Gumport 2000; Kerr 1987, in Vaira 2004:485). Notwithstanding the similar historical structural and cultural features of higher education institutions, they are also embedded in a national political, regulative and governance system which shape their structural and organisational features. This system too is challenged by globalisation's new imperatives, entailing the reshaping of its role, relationships, policy-making, priorities and structure of governance related to the higher education sector (Vaira 2004:483).

Very few companies in this age have not embarked upon some major change programme emanating from the management theories of recent times. Many books and articles in learned journals have been written about this sudden craze for change of the packaged solution type and what has brought it about (Roberts 2001:11). The University of the Free State (UFS) is no exception. In line with modern global trends and the need for organisational growth and development, serious attention needed to be paid to the process of

transforming the UFS. In this chapter, the meta-analytical research question that refers to what the racial integration process in junior female residences on the UFS campus entails is addressed.

The UFS hosts approximately 26000 students in seven different faculties, namely the Humanities, Economic and Management Sciences, Theology, Law, Natural and Agricultural Sciences, Health Sciences, and Education. These faculties house several departments, units and schools. On the main campus, the UFS accommodates 2961 students in 17 junior residences of which 7 are male and 10 are female residences. Apart from the general transformation of the UFS, one area that presents major challenges to the UFS management is the transformation of the campus residences. In the rest of this chapter, the UFS's transformation plan, and more specifically the racial integration in residences on the campus, will be discussed.

During the period 2000-2004 public tertiary institutions were merged to form new institutions, while a National Qualifications Framework (NQF) was implemented to regulate the programmes on offer by the tertiary institutions. The result was the formation of a number of newly named institutions intended to meet the requirements of both the NQF and specific needs of industry in the South African economy. A further implication was that universities and technicons (now known as universities of technology) had to be reorganised to meet the needs of different target markets in South Africa (Department of Education 1998:19-20). During this process the UFS, Vista and QwaQwa merged.

2.2 UNIVERSITY OF THE FREE STATE: TOWARDS TRANSFORMATION

Two imperatives that the UFS and all other higher education institutions are confronted with are excellence and transformation. At its meeting of 11 March 2005, the Council of the University of the Free State took cognisance of the fact that the Executive Management of the UFS had constituted a transformation plan task team (TPTT). The TPTT was constituted on a

representative basis by the University's Executive Management Committee who appointed members of staff to serve as the TPTT. The process, planning and brief, as recommended by the Executive Management (31 January 2005 and 14 February 2005) and Senate (22 February 2005) were approved at this meeting.

Towards the end of 2006 the TPTT submitted their Report and Draft Transformation Plan to the UFS Executive Management (on 23 October 2006), to the Senate (on 31 October 2006) and Council (24 November 2006). These documents were noted with appreciation, and also acknowledged as important aids and direction indicators for the further planning and implementation of the transformation process. Subsequently on 10 November 2006 the TPTT Report and Plan were made available on the UFS intranet. In addition to the comments received from the Senate and Council, further comments were invited from staff and other stakeholders.

At the Executive Management Committee (Exco) summit held 26-28 November 2006, the following documents, in addition to the TPTT Report and Plan were considered and discussed:

- Extracts from international and national literature
- Comments from individual departments, Senate and Council
- An abridged second draft report on the "Social Contract" process compiled by two independent consultants
- The Draft "Institutional Charter" prepared by the Office of the Rector and the Office of Diversity

In order to take the transformation process forward, the Exco then requested the Planning Unit to prepare a framework document, with due consideration of the above documents, providing a platform for discussion at the Executive Management Summit in January 2007. Following this summit an executive management response to the Transformation Plan of the TPTT was compiled and discussed leading to the Transformation Plan: 2007-2010. The contents of this Transformation Plan included a conceptualisation of transformation, providing a generally accepted point of departure for transformation at the

UFS and for this plan; transformation challenges, goals and actions; as well as further operationalisation of these strategies and actions into prioritised projects.

This plan had to be read and interpreted within the context of, and in conjunction with the overarching UFS Strategic Plan (strategic priorities, strategies and actions) to ensure alignment and a clear understanding of the transformation processes at the UFS.

As this study focuses on the racial integration of the junior female residences on the UFS campus, this document (The Transformation Plan) will be discussed in conjunction with the policy document: “Increasing Diversity in UFS main campus residences: A new policy and role for residences”, which was approved by Council on 8 June 2007. As already stated, the majority of this chapter is based on the abovementioned two documents unless otherwise stated.

2.3 HISTORY OF UFS AND UFS RESIDENCES

Situated in Bloemfontein in the Free State province in central South Africa, the UFS was established in 1904 as the first higher education institution in the Free State. The institution was first known as Grey University College (GUC). The institution grew from humble beginnings with only a handful of students to become a vital link in the country’s tertiary education system with more than 29000 students enrolled in 2010.

2.3.1 The history of residence integration at the UFS

As this study’s focus is on providing communication indicators for integrating diverse cultures in junior female residences, a short history of the events since 1989 that changed residence life on campus is deemed necessary. This study’s specific focus will be on the current residence integration process of which the implementation started in 2008.

The UFS centenary edition (Fourie 2006) supplies a history of the residences and residence life at the UFS.

2.3.2 The first attempts at racial integration in residences on the UFS campus

On 5 September 1989, a group of 30 black and coloured students held a protest march on the UFS campus. One of their grievances was that black students were not allowed to reside in on-campus residences. On 25 September 1989, The Council of the UFS decided that residences would be opened to all race groups. Implementation of the decision was done in close cooperation with all the involved stakeholders, especially the students. Students residing on campus were given special attention. At the end of 1989, two senior residences, one male and one female, namely House Boomplaas and House Kestell were opened to students of all race groups. Before more residences were opened, an opinion poll was held by the UFS. Both community groups had people who were opposed to, as well as for, the change. An SRC opinion poll showed that 86% of students who took part in the poll supported the moving in of black students. However, 43.6% of them agreed to the change, as long as there would be separate residences for black and white students.

In spite of grievances from parents, alumni and other stake holders the UFS Council moved forward with their decision to racially integrate the UFS campus. On 24 August 1990, limitations on the placement of post graduate students were lifted. House Emily Hobhouse was opened to students of all race groups and both sexes in 1991, with male and female students residing on different levels in the residence. The residence became predominantly black. In 1991 it was decided that there would be unrestricted acceptance for post graduate students in senior residences and limited entry to undergraduate students in junior residences. Academic performance would be used as guiding principle for acceptance into a residence. At the end of 1993 students were placed in residences of their choice; if no indication of

preference was given the students were placed in residences that had only a small number of residents of the same culture. This was done to ensure that diversity increased. Initially there were five to six black residents in each residence. The average residence capacity was between 165-175 students. The black students were the minority, but still the white students found this a tremendous adjustment. At the end of 1993 many senior students had left the residences they had stayed in and moved into private accommodation in the city or surrounding suburbs. This resulted in 800 empty residence spaces. A commission of enquiry was instituted under the guidance of Prof RA Viljoen. This commission concluded that the residence rules were too strict and that the management of residences was a too involved and lengthy process. An inclusive and representative residence committee was formed to replace the six existing committees. Students from different sexes were now also allowed to visit one another in residence rooms.

A new tendency started surfacing. Students now started moving between the different residences. House Kiepersol was the first male residence with a majority of black students after 40 white students moved from House Kiepersol to House Karee, although Karee was multi-racial at the time. Mr Billyboy Ramahlele was appointed as the first black Residence Head at Kiepersol. As a well-known, respected and popular ANC member, he drew students that supported the ANC. This residence was intensely political and played a leading role in student politics. The first black SRC (Student Representative Council) member, Grant Tsimatsima came from House Kiepersol. In April 1995 another large group of white male students moved from De Wet to Karee because of racial tension in the residence. A group of white students did however stay behind and completed their studies as residents of House De Wet.

Most of the black female students stayed in House N.J. van der Merwe and House Madelief. Until 1999 House N.J. van der Merwe functioned relatively well as a multi-cultural residence, but by 1999 all white students had moved out of the residence. Madelief's residents consisted mostly of black ladies

from wealthier families, or who had attended multi-racial schools. These students had little interest in politics.

In 1996 residence administration once again tried to establish an even racial distribution in the residences. This led to serious problems at House Olienhout, a male residence. Many of the white senior students did not return to residence at the beginning of the following year and there was a long waiting list for black students that wanted accommodation. Thirty black first years and a few black senior students were admitted so that 30%-35% of the occupants were black. Politics started playing a large role in the residence. Civil disobedience was the outcome: House meetings that were not conducted in English were not attended and other residence responsibilities like telephone and front door duty were not done by the black students. Both black and white students felt very unhappy. Management spent hours in discussions with students, but student riots started surfacing.

On 18 and 19 May 1996, just before the start of the examination, clashes between students of House Olienhout (primarily occupied by white residents) and students from House Kiepersol (primarily occupied by black residents) occurred. A lot of damage was done, especially at Kiepersol. White students, some of which had fire arms had chased the black students back to Kiepersol. They were held out of the residence by the Residence Head, Mr Ramahlele, who told them that there were fire arms in Kiepersol residence as well and advised them to return to their residence. Professor Theuns Verschoor, the Dean of Students, was summoned there at 14:30. He asked students to put their grievances in writing. Both groups pleaded that for their own safety, black and white students had to be placed in separate residences. It was then decided to close down House Olienhout. All the residents were sent home to calm down. They were informed that they would still be allowed to write examination during the June/July examinations. On their return, students who accepted House Olienhout's multicultural occupancy were allowed to stay in the residence if they were prepared to commit to it in writing. Those who found it unacceptable were allowed to stay in the President Reitz Rooms on condition that they would not be involved in any

racial conflict on campus. Only black students returned to House Olienhout. The residence was renamed House Kayalami.

During the weekend of 20 and 21 July 1996 conflict between the residents of House De Wet (predominantly black) and House Verwoerd (predominantly white) surfaced. With the assistance of the Dean of Students, who had conversations with both opposing groups, it subsided within 24 hours. Black students residing in the President Reitz Rooms occupied the ground floor of the George du Toit administration building on 5 August 1996. This was because of alleged unhappiness about racism. It was decided that a mass meeting would be held on 8 August 1996. At this meeting the Rector, Professor Stef Coetzee, informed the students about policy statements concerning transformation and racial policies on campus. The students in residences were adamant that the placement policy had to be changed. They wanted input in the placement of students in order to maintain the specific character of a residence. The newly formed placement policy stated that House Committees could select 70% of the applicants according to the character of their residence and that the university would select 30% of the applicants. It was also decided that students would be placed in a residence of their choice as far as possible.

At the end of 1996 the conflict started anew, and this time in House DF Malherbe. It followed the same pattern as in the other residences where problems had previously occurred. After meetings with Professor Verschoor, the Dean of Students, an ultimatum was given to the students stating that the residence would be closed down if the students couldn't reach an agreement. No agreement could be reached. The white students were prepared to move to President Reitz Rooms. After the April break the white students moved to President Reitz and the black students remained in House DF Malherbe which was renamed to House Villa Bravado. There was a good relationship between the occupants of Villa Bravado and Pres. Reitz after this. House Karee was the only remaining male residence where relatively large groups of black and white students resided together. During June 1997 the black and white students in Karee started experiencing conflict. There was constant

tension between them. The threat that incidents would occur and actual incidents that occurred caused students severe stress. Attempts to end the conflict and intimidation in the residence were to no avail, and in May 1999 both parties drew up petitions that described the situation in the residence as unbearable and unacceptable. A suggestion was made to the Student Transformation Forum to divide the residence into two sections. This request was granted unwillingly by the UFS. The students themselves made the division and the black students renamed their part of the residence Tswelopele. Each part had its own entrance and its own Residence Committee and they functioned independently of one another. A Code of Conduct was drawn up between the two parties. No further incidents were reported, the passing rate of the students in these residences improved and a good relationship developed between the residents.

The accommodation and placement policy constantly lead to conflict. Students from different race groups demanded that different residences should be appointed to the different race groups. Ultimately the university adopted a policy of freedom of association. This meant that students could choose which residence they wanted to reside in. If they chose to live with another culture they had to live according to the rules applicable in that particular residence. Staff members that made valuable contributions during these difficult times were the rector at that time, Professor Stef Coetzee, the Dean of Students, Professor Theuns Verschoor and the Director of Student Affairs, Doctor Natie Luyt.

2.4 TRANSFORMATION CONCEPTUALISED

The history of the UFS shows that the transformation of UFS residences has been receiving attention since 1990. In his opening speech of 2005, the rector, Prof. Fourie, announced the drafting of the UFS Transformation Plan. Prof Fourie stated that the UFS had to nurture a common sense of belonging which is more than “merely accommodating”. He suggested the development of an entirely new organisational culture with non-dominance as norm, and

establishment of values that reflect the various dimensions of culture of the multitude of cultures present at the institution.

2.4.1 Transformational change model

When conceptualising transformation or change, three change models can be distinguished. According to the Transformation Plan of the UFS they are:

- A developmental model of improving existing conditions that do not measure up to current or future needs (improvements within the box of what is already known or established practice); or
- A transitional change model that does not improve what is, but replaces what is, with something entirely different - a process of dismantling the “old” and creating a clearly designed new state; or
- Transformational change that demands a fundamental shift in the organisation’s culture and peoples’ behaviour and mind set, and has the primary motivation of survival (change or die) or for thriving (a breakthrough is needed to pursue new opportunities).

Elements of all three of the above change models are present in the institutional transformation processes currently continuing at the UFS; yet, taking into account the challenges facing the institution from its internal and external environments, it was suggested that this fourth phase of transformation of the UFS be imbedded primarily in a transformational change model. This has *inter alia*, the following implications:

Transformational change implies that a relatively large gap exists between the environmental needs and the operations of the UFS. Outcomes of transformational change are not initially known in all respects, but they emerge or are created through continuous course correction; it therefore is an emergent process and as such, has a process orientation and occurs through conscious process design and facilitation. This in turn, has a high impact on the mind set (institutional culture) of the UFS, implying a shift from the old to a new mind set. An overhaul of strategy, structure, systems, processes,

technology, work, culture and behaviour is therefore needed and will require high levels of personal development, as well as high levels of involvement. This is likely to be accomplished with high levels of institutional discomfort.

2.4.2 Transformation defined

In the context of a transformational change model, it was agreed that the following characteristics, specified in a working (operational) definition of transformation by Eckel *et al.* (1998), as cited in the UFS Transformation Plan: 2007-2010, typify transformation at the UFS:

“Without changing the core values of being an excellent university, the entire institution is affected by transformation as a deep and pervasive, intentional (planned) and gradual (phased) process. Transformation alters the institutional culture by changing underlying assumptions and institutional behaviours and processes.”

Institutional culture can be described as, and includes:

Artefacts which are the concrete representations of culture, such as typical institutional language and terminology, published mission statements, observable rituals and ceremonies, reward systems and communication channels and procedures (the products, activities, and processes that form the landscape of the UFS’s culture).

Espoused values which are what we as institution say and what we promote, but not always what we do, i.e. the articulated beliefs about what is “good”, what is “right”, what “works”, etc.

Underlying assumptions which, as the innermost core of culture, encompass deeply ingrained beliefs that are usually difficult to identify and therefore rarely questioned. These assumptions are usually taken for granted and as such are the most difficult to change (and if changed, they take a long time to change).

The UFS is therefore committed to transformation as defined above, implying a phased process of continuous and persistent change enabling the UFS in

firstly becoming a world-class, engaged university of excellence and innovation and a place of scholarship for South Africa and Africa. **Secondly**, the UFS is committed to becoming an equitable, diverse, non-racial, non-sexist, multi-cultural and multi-lingual university where everyone will experience a sense of belonging and achieving. **Thirdly**, the aim is to become a learning organisation where institutional culture, structures and processes are continuously and fundamentally scrutinised and redesigned to remain optimally fit for purpose and, lastly, of becoming an institution that treasures diversity as source of strength and quality.

2.5 TRANSFORMATION CHALLENGES, GOALS AND STRATEGIES

Proceeding from the above mentioned conceptualisation of and commitment to transformation, the challenges and goals for transformation, as well as strategies to address them are presented in this section in order to provide a framework for the transformation processes at the UFS. Four main interrelated dimensions were identified. They are:

- Transformation area 1: Institutional culture
- Transformation area 2: Academic activities
- Transformation area 3: Governance and management
- Transformation area 4: Employment equity

2.5.1 Transformation Area 1: Institutional culture

This transformation area includes the following important sub-dimensions:

- Institutional climate;
- sense of belonging;
- student life;
- staff life;
- language policy.

In Transformation area 1, four challenges with their accompanying goals, as well as suggested strategies for implementation were established. These

included the creation and nurturing of a sense of belonging among staff and students by transforming the institutional culture of the UFS from a dominant Afrikaans culture to one that fosters and nurtures diversity and creates a state of non-dominance amidst diversity. This challenge had to be addressed by three goals which included the creation of an institutional climate in which diversity would be enhanced and cherished and an identification of the determinants of a sense of belonging which are relevant within a diverse higher education institution and the UFS. The creation and maintenance of an inclusive institutional culture that fosters a sense of belonging for all staff and students of the UFS was also deemed essential. Furthermore it was envisaged that diversity in student life had to be enhanced and fostered at the UFS. The use of diversity as a source of enrichment of students' educational and personal development was the goal set for meeting this challenge.

The enhancement and fostering of diversity as a strength of the UFS within staff life had to be attained by the reaching of an agreement concerning operational definitions among staff members. This would ensure that sufficient diversity in the composition of staff at the UFS would be established. Another important goal to be attained was the establishment of substantive and sufficient multilingualism in a way that balances imperatives of multilingualism and aspects of transformation in order to harmonise the content and implementation of the present language policy to ensure enhancement of transformation and other diversity initiatives at the UFS.

Proposed strategies for the attainment of these desired goals or outcomes included:

- The preparation, approval, and implementation of a process plan to finalise the draft Institutional Charter as an outcome of the Social Contract process.
- The development of a plan for the implementation of an inclusive and continuing diversity and multi-cultural sensitisation programme for Council members, staff members and students, as well as the approval and implementation of this plan.

- The implementation, institutional approval and monitoring of the plan would be preceded by a scientific investigation to identify the cultural, physical, sociological, organisational and other determinants that would foster a sense of belonging among staff and students at a diverse higher education institution. The use of information and surveys to identify issues that impede on the establishment and the fostering of a sense of belonging.
- Recommendations for incorporation of those issues into the strategic planning enabling the necessary adjustments to be implemented within a holistic plan with implementable strategies and actions derived from the above mentioned investigation, followed by approval, implementation and monitoring of this plan.
- The development of instruments to conduct staff and student satisfaction surveys, as well as institutional climate surveys. The information derived from these surveys would then be used to identify the issues that hinder the establishment and maintenance of a sense of belonging and make recommendations for incorporation into strategic planning to enable the necessary adjustments to implement strategies. After conclusion of the consultation process on the draft residence placement policy and strategy it was subjected to approval and implemented.
- An investigation of various options for the enhancement of social and academic interaction among a diverse student body and selection and proposal of strategies and actions to implement the most appropriate options to optimally enhance social interaction among a diverse student body at the UFS.
- A review of the policies and selection processes to ensure fair access and participation for all interested students was begun, *inter alia*: Sporting codes; Intervarsity; Rag and Rag Queen contest; Kovsie culture; UFS choirs; Irawa; Kovscom; SIFE.
- The submission of a report for approval and implementation on suggested changes in the above areas of student life.

- Proposals regarding staff diversity, the composition of UFS staff and the meaning of sufficient diversity were also addressed by *inter alia*: Interrogating and selecting applicable and relevant benchmarks for the University for defining and attaining sufficient diversity, as well as debating and reaching sufficient consensus on the practical meaning of “sufficient diversity” to enable operationalisation thereof in the Employment Equity Plan. This was supported by the proposal of short-term, medium-term and eventual equity targets.

Further strategies included the process of investigating, identifying and discussing possible conflicts between Language Policy multilingualism and employment equity/staff diversity and to approve and implement the suggested plan. The need for interpreting services at management meetings and at departmental and divisional levels were realised and a plan devised to implement it. The optimisation and use of a third language in simultaneous interpretation were also considered.

The development of Sesotho as a language of science by *inter alia* stimulating a debate on the development of indigenous languages; identification, communication, acknowledgement and incorporation of different present initiatives at the UFS; acknowledgement of and linkage with national and international efforts regarding the development of indigenous languages; and identification of possible partners in the process. Further improvements envisaged were the identification of front-line support services with a three-language interface with the public and students where necessary and implementation thereof. The investigation and determining of the necessity for interpreting services during lectures to cater for those lecturers who are not fluent in both mediums of instruction at the UFS, together with determining the need for empowerment of new and existing staff members regarding multilingualism were also foreseen.

2.5.2 Transformation Area 2: Academic activities

As this study's focus is on the racial integration in junior female residences at the UFS, Transformation Area 2 will not be discussed in detail and only main points will be highlighted.

The challenges and goals that had to be addressed in this transformation area included the establishment of the UFS as an engaged and responsive institution of higher learning while maintaining its autonomy as university of excellence. This would be done by positioning the UFS as an engaged and responsive university, as well as enhancing responsiveness and engagement in research. Development of innovative academic programmes that enhanced student performance through innovation in teaching and learning, as well as maintaining the overall diversity balance amongst students at the UFS received attention. Further goals included differentially broadening access to underrepresented programmes and optimising student performance and success. Finally, responsiveness could and should be enhanced through the UFS's engagement and community service.

2.5.3 Transformation Area 3: Governance and management

The governance structures of the UFS consist of The Chancellor, The Council, the Executive Committee of the Senate, the University Management Committee, the Rectorate, the Professoriate Committee, the Higher Degrees Committee, and the Student Representative Council.

Challenges and goals identified in this transformation area centred on ensuring the alignment of the vision and mission of the UFS (concerning its purpose and fit), as well as alignment of governance and management structures in order to realise vision and mission fit, applicability and purpose.

This implies that the vision and mission of the UFS should be aligned with the ever-changing environment in which it operates and it should be ensured that it befits the type of university it strives to become as foreseen in the Institutional Charter. Furthermore, the governance and management

structures and processes of the UFS should be aligned to optimise the realisation of the realigned vision and mission of the UFS.

Reconsideration of the mission, vision and values of the UFS in order to attain alignment with the Institutional Charter as well as an evaluation of the then current governance and management structures and models were proposed to ensure for effectiveness and efficiency. The roll out of the performance management system of the UFS was put in place in order to ensure that staff members were aligned with the vision and mission and strategic priorities of the UFS.

2.5.4 Transformation Area 4: Employment equity

This challenge is noted, but for the sake of this study not be discussed in detail. The main challenges identified in this transformation area include the acceleration of the redress process by the appointment of staff in underrepresented groups to promote substantive and sufficient diversity was the first priority. This was done by accelerating the operationalisation of the guiding principles, institutional framework and strategies set out in the approved Employment Equity (EE) policy of the UFS to guide the equity programme of the university.

The enhancement of transformation within the ambit of the UFS strategic priority of financial sustainability was also recognised as an important challenge.

Strategies employed to attain the above goals included the continuous implementation of the EE Policy, in conjunction with the availing of increased incentives and resources for faculties and departments to accelerate redress of underrepresented groups in the EE Policy and Plan. Fears, frustrations and aspirations experienced by different groups, as well as the management of fears caused as a result of the change and transformation at the UFS were identified. Proposals were made in order to determine how the change and transformation process could be managed with minimum stress and to optimise staff wellness.

2.6 TRANSFORMATION PROJECTS

In order to enable manageable execution of the strategies discussed above, they were clustered, sequenced and prioritised within the following categories of projects:

Category 1: Diversity-related urgent and important projects (highest priority)

Category 2: Diversity-related projects for immediate attention and implementation

Category 3: Core function related projects (Medium to long-term projects to be planned in more details as part of the UFS Quality Improvement Plan during the second semester of 2007)

Category 4: Transformation project: Important long-term project

As Category 1 is the category directly associated with this study, it will be discussed in detail. The other three categories are only noted.

2.6.1 Category 1: Diversity-related urgent and important projects (Highest priority)

The above mentioned categories were further subdivided into projects of relevance. A brief discussion of each of these categories will now be supplied. For the sake of this study, special attention will be paid to the project on 'Diversity in student life' and the project titled 'Sense of belonging'.

The projects identified under Category 1 included:

- (1) Diversity in student life
- (2) Sense of belonging
- (3) Employment equity and redress
- (4) Language (Policy) and diversity
- (5) Equity in access, throughput and success

2.6.1.1 *Diversity in student life*

Two sub-divisions in this project included:

- Residence replacement policy
- Enhancement of social and academic interaction of students

As this study's focus is on the racial integration of junior female residences, this category is of special interest.

2.6.1.1.1 *Residence Placement policy*

The aspect of diversity in student life was addressed by focussing on the residence replacement policy. This project was deemed a high priority project and the focus was and still is on improving racial diversity in on-campus residences. Four phases were identified here and they included:

- A conclusion of the consultation process on the draft residence placement policy and strategy by the end of April 2007.
- Finalisation and submission of draft policy and strategies to EM by May 2007.
- Approval of proposed residence placement policy and strategies for submission to Council on 8 June 2007.
- Implementation of residence placement strategy as from end of 2007 for student intake of January 2008.

2.6.1.1.2 *Enhancement of social and academic interaction of students*

This project is an extension of the residence diversity project discussed above and aims at enhancement of other areas of interaction such as academic and social interaction. Phases identified to assist in this process included: The investigation of various methods by means of which social and academic interaction among a diverse student body could be enhanced. Conclusion of this phase was expected to be the end of June 2008. The selection and

proposal of strategies and actions in order to implement the most appropriate options to optimally enhance social interaction among a diverse student body at the UFS were also investigated.

2.6.2 Sense of belonging

Sub-divisions of this project were identified as:

- Determinants of and plan for creating and maintaining a sense of belonging.
- Monitoring of plan for sense of belonging.
- Inclusive continuing diversity and multicultural sensitisation programme.

Determinants of a sense of belonging and the creation and maintenance of a sense of belonging had to be addressed in this category.

The five phases identified here included:

- Conducting a scientific investigation to identify the cultural, physical, sociological, organisational and other determinants, including frustrations and aspirations of different groups caused by change and transformation that would foster a sense of belonging among students and staff at a diverse Higher Education Institution. Completion date for this investigation set for the end of August 2007.
- Identification of strategically important determinants relevant to the UFS which would have optimum effect on creating and maintaining a sense of belonging for staff and students. The completed report had to be submitted to EM by the end of August 2007.
- The preparation and submission of a holistic plan with practical and implementable strategies and actions, derived from the above scientific investigation, to optimally change the UFS culture from an Afrikaans-dominant culture to a non-dominating and diverse institutional culture that fosters a sense of belonging on the part of all staff and students of the UFS.

- Submission of the final plan to be submitted to EM by the end of November 2007 and to Council on March 2008.
- Implementation of the above plan as from the second term of 2008.

After the implementation of this plan, it would be monitored closely to ensure success. The following important points had to be taken into consideration during this process: The development of instruments to conduct staff satisfaction surveys, as well as institutional climate surveys was essential. These surveys could also serve as monitoring instruments to determine the effect of the implemented strategies for establishment of a sense of belonging. These satisfaction and climate surveys had to be submitted and approved as instruments for regular use and a plan had to be put in place for the admission of regular staff satisfaction and institutional climate surveys. The information from surveys would be used to identify issues that hinder the establishment and maintenance of a sense of belonging and to make recommendations for incorporation into strategic planning to enable the necessary adjustments to already implemented strategies. The implementation of a plan for regular staff satisfaction and institutional climate surveys were instituted, this had to be continuous and commenced in 2008.

An inclusive and continuous diversity and multi-cultural sensitisation programme for Council members, staff and students were developed and had to be presented to EM by the end of October 2007. Submission for approval of this programme to EM and implementation thereof on a continuous basis, started from beginning 2008.

2.6.3 Employment Equity and Redress

The UFS Employment Equity Three-year Rolling Plan (October 2007 – September 2010) approved by Council on 23 November 2007, constituted compliance by the UFS with its statutory obligation in terms of the Employment Equity Act, No 55 of 1998 and is in line with the EE Policy of the UFS. This plan is the core component of the UFS programme to achieve its strategic priority of equity, diversity, and redress, and is currently in revision.

The operationalising of sufficient staff diversity is the focus area in this category. Submission of a proposal to EM for approval in time for implementation as from the second semester of 2007 was requested. Sufficient diversity in the composition of staff on macro-level, as well as institutionalisation of enabling systems, procedures and mechanisms to support the implementation of the EE Policy and plan were needed.

2.6.4 Language (policy) and Diversity

The necessity of the investigation of the multilingualism level at the UFS was acknowledged. Identification of and a discussion about the levels of multilingualism in academic and support activities as well as possible conflicts between Language Policy were investigated and the process had to be completed and findings reported to EM by the end of May 2007. The development of a plan and strategies to address aspects of non-alignment between Language Policy, multilingualism and employment equity had to be addressed. After approval of the relevant strategies the implementation had to take place on a continuous basis as from 2008.

2.6.5 Equity in access, Throughput and Success

The UFS strives to be a true South African university of equity and innovation, as well as a high-quality, non-racial, non-sexist, multi-cultural, multi-lingual university and place of scientific practice for South Africa and Africa.

This phase entailed a revisiting of the UFS's enrolment plan: 2006-2010 to ensure:

- The maintenance of the diversity balance in the total student population;
- Redress of programmes in which designated groups were still underrepresented;
- Alignment with the Department of Education's approved enrolments. This review had to be completed by the end of May 2007.

- Consultation with faculties in order to align the UFS enrolment plan with faculties' enrolment plans had to be undertaken and a final draft submitted by the end of August 2007.
- The final plan had to be submitted to EM for approval by September 2007.
- Marketing, recruitment and enrolment practices had to be aligned with the proposed enrolment plan. This had to be implemented on a continuous basis from beginning 2008.

The development and proposal of an integrated and systematically focused plan to ensure equity in throughput and success of students by *inter alia* investigating causative factors for poor student performance, devising and implementing student performance tracking systems, introducing tutor systems through academic lines and ensuring that all admission and re-admission policies and criteria of the UFS are free from unfair discrimination and aligned to its commitment to equity and redress regarding access to the UFS. Implementation of this plan started beginning 2008.

2.7 BACKGROUND OF CURRENT INTEGRATION PROCESS

In his 2005 opening speech, the Rector and Vice-Chancellor Professor Frederick Fourie, announced the launch of the 4th phase of transformation and the appointment of a transformation plan task team (the TPTT) to produce a transformation plan. In this context he stated the following:

“...on the main campus in effect we have ‘two campuses’ – one white and one black, separated in the classrooms and in the residences. This was certainly never our intention and is an unintended consequence of our parallel-medium policy (which allows for classes in Afrikaans and English) together with the current hostel placement policy which gives students freedom of choice of which hostel they want to live in.

The current residence placement policy is the result of important negotiations with students in the transition phase of 1997/98. It was the consensus outcome of deliberations by black and white students, and based on the

principle of voluntary association. Although never a policy intention of the UFS, the result has been a gradual gravitation to residences that are mainly black or white. After 8 years, the time has come to review the policy. The situation that prevails now is very different from those years. Both white and black students come from a different environment as in 1997, many are used to mixed schools and school residences. When they arrive on this campus they suddenly have to choose, effectively, between mainly white or mainly black residences.

An intensive consultation and discussion process will be launched shortly on campus about the residence placement policy. Students and student leaders will necessarily be directed and intensively interviewed in this process. In fact students should take the lead in this review of the policy, with student leadership structures and governance structures. Residence wardens are an equally important group that should be able to come up with innovative ideas.”

This policy statement followed a proposal drafted at an Executive Committee (Exco) planning session in November 2004 that was presented in order to address concerns regarding the then levels of diversity in residences at the UFS as well as a proposal of how to increase diversity in residences at the UFS. Matters of concern that needed to be addressed were the predominantly mono-racial residences – especially the so-called junior residences. These proposals were accepted by the Exco.

The placement policy at that time was based on the principle of free association, with student preferences and date of application being decisive factors for placement. Residence House Committees could place 70% of new first year applicants, and the UFS (Accommodation Services) placed the remaining 30%. The policy had no diversity stipulation or goals, although it appeared to have been its intention upon its inception in 1997/8.

In practice the residences were largely racially segregated. While the overall picture shows an admirable approximate 50:50 balance between black and white residence students, at an individual level many residences were 100% mono-racial, with an average racial diversity of 3%.

In the Strategic Plan 2005-2007 the Executive Management, the Senate and the Council approved the “Develop, approve and implement a new residence placement policy” plan. In the TPTT Report that was handed to the Executive Management 18 months later (October 2006), the review of the residence placement policy was also explicitly listed as a priority. The TPTT Report consulted widely with stakeholders including staff, student leaders and organisations, alumni and the provincial government, among others. The resulting Transformation Plan of the Executive Management was approved in February 2007 and this policy review was placed at the top of the list of urgent priorities.

From March to May 2007 several discussions were held with stakeholders. These stakeholders included Residence Heads, the main campus SRC, residence Primes (who consulted, in turn, with residence members) and student organisations. Residents were also requested, via the Primes, to consult with their parents during the April holidays of 2007 and then submit comments and suggestions regarding the matter. Meetings were held with representatives of the Alumni Organisation (Kovsie-Alumni) as well as with some parents. A draft guideline document was made available to all these groups and their comments received. In addition to meetings, written submissions and comments were also requested.

Following all the above mentioned processes, the Exco and Executive Management proposed that a new residence placement and diversity policy had to be adopted by the Council. The essence of the proposed new policy was an educational approach to the question of residence diversity.

2.8 THE FOLLOWING CRITERIA WERE STATED AS POINTS OF DEPARTURE

Following Exco and Executive Management’s proposal for a new residence placement policy, it was decided by council that the new placement policy had to be derived from the intrinsic nature of the university as an educational

institution where students are professionally and intellectually and socially prepared for the South African workplace.

Campus life and residences in particular, have a strong socialisation and 'social education' effect, which constitute an important part of the total educational experience of residence students. The social education effect of residences can either enhance or inhibit the preparedness of the student for the diversity of the South African work place. A university can therefore not turn a blind eye to residence culture and residence practices. It was therefore deemed essential that an educational approach to diversity in residences had to be followed. The residence policy had to be aligned with the UFS's vision, mission and values, Institutional Charter, strategic objectives and other relevant initiatives and plans. Such alignment had to be secured via appropriate guidelines.

Human diversity encompasses many dimensions of human society in addition to race. Factors such as language, religion, sexual orientation, culture, class and economic background, school background, learning styles, social background, and urban versus rural background, also had to be taken into consideration. A differentiated spectrum of accommodation needs had to be addressed, and this included mature students, married students, international students, and students who preferred different academic, organisational or gender environments; these might include "co-ed" accommodation and accommodation which is less organised and run more like flats or boarding houses. (The then existing range of options were restricted to "junior" and "senior" residences, the latter being much less structured than the former).

The need for a *migration strategy* to move from the current menu of accommodation and diversity option, to a new and more diverse accommodation menu with more options available to students was identified. A well-supported and facilitated approach had to be followed, in which specific measures and programmes had to be implemented to empower, develop the diversity skills and build the necessary capacity of students and staff directly affected by a new policy. Given the complexity of the situation in the historical and current context of the UFS, a new placement policy had to be

conceptually well-considered and principled, followed by careful but firm and well-supported implementation. The issues, risks and paradoxes relating to residence issues had to be considered carefully and had to be incorporated into the models, parameters, support systems, communication strategies, phasing-in decisions, planning and implementation processes and time-frames.

The process of increasing diversity in residences had to be well-managed with inputs from relevant stakeholders, notably students. However, ultimately the decision on the kinds of residences in terms of their composition and diversity was a decision that had to be made by the UFS. Management had to develop a particular position with regard to a specific model or models for increasing diversity in residences, whilst maintaining balanced macro-diversity (overall racial and language balance, i.e. 50/50 in residences as a whole). Parameters, minimum requirements or constraints had to be specific in that regard.

2.9 AN EDUCATIONAL RATIONALE FOR INCREASING DIVERSITY IN RESIDENCES

The UFS is an educational institution established to provide higher education to all its registered students that will enable them to play a leading role in the development of a non-racial South African society, in which language, cultural, religious and other rights and freedoms are enshrined by the Constitution. This will prepare them for the world of work, in which managing and respecting diversity among colleagues has become an important element. In line with this, the UFS mission includes the “development of the total student as part of its academic culture” as an integral part of the UFS’s core business. The new mission developed was:

The pursuit of scholarship as embodied in the creation, integration, application and transmission of knowledge by promoting the following within the ambit of financial sustainability:

- *An academic culture*

- *Critical scientific reflection*
- *Relevant scientific education*
- *Pure and applied research*
- *Community service*
- *Development of the total student as part of its academic culture*

The Management of the UFS believed that enhancing the diversity at the UFS (in the academic environment, residences, student activities, etc.) and empowering students with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to respect and manage diversity on campus, in residences and ultimately in the workplace, would have academic and social benefits such as:

- Enhancing the educational experiences of all students
- Teaching students (black and white) to live, work, socialise and interact with students from other backgrounds
- Encouraging the exchange of new ideas
- Empowering students to think about issues in different ways
- Empowering students not to think in group terms
- Introducing novel perspectives to discussions
- Encouraging a robust exchange of ideas
- Broadening the scope of problem solving and improving decision-making.
- Fostering inclusiveness
- Preparing students for the world of work
- Producing graduates with valuable people and diversity management skills that are crucial for the labour market
- Increasing graduate employability and workplace success due to exposure to and skills in diversity management as well as multilingualism.

The abovementioned considerations highlighted the need for a structured dispensation to facilitate interaction and mutual learning between students in

the UFS accommodation facilities who come from different racial, cultural, economic and historical backgrounds.

2.10 GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR A NEW POLICY

Guiding principles considered for the implementation of a new policy were considered and set in place. This was done by using the key principles in the draft Institutional Charter to guide the proper design and implementation of a non-racial residence model. These guiding principles were:

- Promotion of an all-pervasive culture and intellectually stimulating environment
- An educational approach to student support
- Creating a sense of belonging
- Maintaining sufficient diversity in the student body and residences
- Equity, justice and fairness in dealing with diversity
- Innovativeness in pursuit of equity and justice
- Sufficient diversity of symbols and artefacts to reflect the diversity of histories and cultures unambiguously and in a balanced, respectful manner
- Substantive and sufficient multilingualism
- Substantive multiculturalism and embracement of the diversity of cultures within the context of an open, university community
- Non-dominance amidst diversity, i.e. preventing the dominance of any group over others
- Non-marginalisation, respect for minorities and appreciation for human diversity in personalities, individual preferences, etc. (non-alienation; a human environment)
- Substantive presence of different population groups and genders in governance, management and decision-making bodies
- Sufficient diversity in the composition of the student body to constitute the necessary institutional space for nurturing non-racialism, non-

sexism, multiculturalism, multilingualism and non-dominance of any specific race.

It was further decided to use the values of the UFS and the South African Constitution to forge a sense of unity and cooperation based on integrity, mutual respect and fairness, within the context of the constitutional values of non-racialism, non-sexism and non-discrimination.

2.11 THE PROPOSED STRATEGY FOR INTEGRATING DIFFERENT RACES IN RESIDENCES

The proposed strategy was based on different accommodation options. Given the spectrum of preferences amongst its current, 2007 as well as future clients, the UFS needed to supply a menu of accommodation options with regard to (a) the extent to which it is structured and organised with residence committees, etc. and (b) the physical design of the facility.

2.11.1 Different accommodation options

The following accommodation options were proposed:

- Junior residences, existing (structured with residence committees)
- New junior residences to be constructed (structured)
- Faculty-based junior residences (structured)
- Senior residences for mature students (partially structured)
- Come-and-go residences with bachelor pads, to be constructed (unstructured)
- Come-and-go residences for married students and/or international students, to be constructed (unstructured)
- Flats and townhouses, to be constructed (unstructured)

The details of this strategic Accommodation Facilities Plan were to be worked out by an accommodation facilities task team and submitted to Council as soon as possible. Private enterprise and/or partnerships could be used where appropriate. The shortage of academic office space experienced also had to

be considered in evaluating the optimal use of accommodation facilities (the option of the conversion of residences into offices also had to be considered).

Sufficient diversity had to be an integral part of the suggested accommodation types.

2.11.2 Migration strategy

A migration strategy that moved away from the then existing pattern of accommodation options had to be adopted. The development of a new, differentiated and broader spectrum menu of accommodation options within which a sufficient and differentiated level of diversity was present, were deemed essential. Proposals for the phasing in of increased diversity in existing residences had to be understood as elements of such a migration strategy.

2.11.3 A differentiated approach to diversity in residences

In order to increase diversity through placement, the following dimensions of diversity, in addition to race and language had to be taken into account as far as possible:

- Educational background (Former model C/ township/ rural area/city schools/ mono-cultural/ mixed-integrated)
- Rural/ farm/ urban/ township
- Geographical (e.g. province/country)
- Economic and class background (poor/ middle class/ rich)
- Field of study (in so far as these may imply a concentration of similar thinking students).

While the above mentioned aspects were seen as important in increasing diversity, practical implementation with regard to some of the mentioned aspects were considered to be difficult, as all of the dimensions considered were not reflected on the application form.

2.11.4 Minimum diversity levels

The residence placement policy that existed before 2007 did not specify any diversity levels or goals. (As noted above, the factual position is an average of approximately 3% racial diversity in individual residences).

Attaining and maintaining sufficient racial diversity within the residences of the UFS was a key element of the diversity objective of this policy.

The concept of “sufficient diversity” with regard to race can be understood as being within the 30%-50% range. It was also argued that a mix of roughly 50:50 would be ideal to create the environment and institutional space for nurturing non-racialism in the longer term. The attainment and maintenance of both substantive multilingualism and substantive multiculturalism were additional key elements of the diversity objective.

Given the above considerations, the following was proposed:

- The aim of the migration period was to reach a minimum racial diversity level in each existing junior residence of 30%
- Following the migration period and a review of the situation, the introduction of an overall minimum level of 40%, and later even 50% would be considered by UFS management is deemed necessary or appropriate
- The general aim of the migration period for all other categories was to attain and approximate 50:50 mix within a 40%-60% interval. This included the new junior residences, faculty residences, senior residences, and “unstructured” or non-organised residences
- The overall goal was an overall diversity balance of roughly 50:50 for all junior and senior residences together
- Residence rooms were regarded as private spaces where personal preferences hold sway
- No pattern of “black” or “white” areas or floors or clusters of rooms was allowed.

The ultimate goal and ideal were for a non-racial paradigm to become so entrenched that racial categories ceased to be relevant and that such percentages and mechanisms became anachronistic and unnecessary.

2.11.5 Phasing-in and time frames

The approved minimum diversity level of 30% was to be implemented by starting with 30% with regard to new first-year students in 2008. In 2009 this was to be extended to reach a percentage of 30% for the first-year and second-year students together. In 2010 a percentage of 30% for first-year, second-year and third-year students together had to be achieved.

For senior residences, a 40%-60% interval would be the norm from 2008 onwards. This implied that the time frame for the diversity element of the migration strategy was three years. The time frame for new accommodation facilities was to be determined when the Accommodation Facilities Plan was drawn up.

2.12 PLACEMENT

Before 2007, residences (Residence Committees) placed 70% of students, and Accommodation Services the remaining 30%. No diversity considerations, constraints or goals were specified.

It was proposed that residences be allowed to place up to 50% of first-year students so as to take ownership and responsibility for diversity in the residences. It was expected of residences to use this portion to pursue diversity goals with reference to the desired minimum diversity levels. This was to be monitored carefully by the UFS management. If diversity goals with regard to race, language and multiculturalism were not met by the residence, or were undermined in any way, the UFS would use its placement portion to attain these goals. Appropriate criteria would be specified. The UFS would and also had to use part of its portion for other strategic diversity objectives,

notably dimensions of diversity other than race. If a residence could not reach or utilise its 50% the UFS would assist to fill the places.

2.13 INCENTIVES AND DISINCENTIVES

Residences would be encouraged to voluntarily increase their diversity level above the minimum prescribed level. Incentives would be instituted by management to encourage residences to do this.

In the case of residences that did not reach and/or maintained the approved diversity levels after a reasonable time period, more drastic steps would be considered, e.g. closure and restarting as a “new” residence with a 50:50 mix.

Incentives could also be used to reach the minimum level as such, if necessary.

2.14 CONSIDERATIONS IN IMPLEMENTING THE NEW APPROACH

The implementation of the new policy was to be approached as a change management process, both during the preparation stage in the second half of 2007 and the actual migration period of 2008-2010.

During the processes of consultation and strategic analysis the following issues were identified that needed to be addressed during implementation, if the goal of a smooth transition to harmonious, diverse residences was to be achieved. The implementation process was to be guided by the points of departure and guiding principles listed in 2.10.

2.14.1 Scrutinising of existing residence traditions and “character”

An identification of those traditions and symbols that carried weight, were worth preserving and were compatible with non-racialism, non-sexism, non-discrimination, diversity and non-dominance had to be made. Traditions and elements of “character” that were not compatible with the strategic objectives, values and principles of transforming the UFS had to be identified and

eliminated. Ways of dealing respectfully and in a balanced fashion with such traditions and accompanying symbols, given a new, more inclusive and diversity-orientated dispensation had to be found. The finding of ways to assist in dealing appropriately with the need of residences to have input on the placement and selection of residents (e.g. within certain parameters and constraints) were essential. Creating new traditions and symbols that exemplify a new dispensation of dealing equitably and innovatively with student diversity, and accommodating students that have a more individualistic approach and have less need to be part of a strong culture, group or residence “character” had to be considered. It was also necessary to balancing loyalty towards residences with loyalty towards the UFS.

2.14.2 Designing mechanisms to deal with language and cultural diversity

Revision of existing modus operandi was necessary concerning:

- Role and management of residence meetings (e.g. language)
- Notice boards
- Residence websites
- Social events, dances/bashes, music selection
- Social customs and arrangements for “silent times” for study
- Inter-residence activities
- Dating practices and customs
- Visitation rights of opposite genders
- Personal habits (music, friends, bathrooms, food)
- Academic habits and study hours
- Financial contributions by residents towards residence activities
- Disciplinary rules and procedures of residences
- Sport codes, teams and events
- Television viewing, subscription to newspapers
- Religious rituals
- First-year welcoming ceremonies

- Orientation events and practices
- Rag events
- Placement and re-placement procedures
- Room selection
- Residence committee constitution and elections
- Diversity orientation, mediation and facilitation
- Language facilitation/interpreting
- Language courses to develop language skills of residents in additional languages.

2.14.3 Designing mechanisms to reduce the dynamics of fear

Possible fears of black students:

- Fear of being assimilated into the white culture
- Fear of being or remaining marginalised on campus
- Fear of losing their traditions (however defined)
- Fear of being manipulated by whites
- Fear of having no control over residence/student activities
- Fear of not being accepted by whites
- Fear of being victimised
- Fear of conflict

Possible fears of white students:

- Fear of losing their traditions (however defined)
- Fear of losing their “language space” in residence activities
- Fear of being dominated and marginalised by the black culture
- Fear related to being a minority group (given the wider political context)
- Fear of losing control of residence/student activities
- Fear of being manipulated by blacks
- Fear of not being accepted by blacks
- Fear of being victimised
- Fear of conflict

2.14.4 Designing mechanisms and regulations to avoid domination and marginilisation

It was deemed essential to ensure that dominance of one group over another, marginalisation of a group or minority, or alienation of a group, minority or individuals should be avoided. Excessive influence of territory, tradition and testosterone (TTT) in or between male residences, racist, sexist and other discriminatory practices (e.g. zero tolerance approach to such transgressions needed to be considered) and conflict also had to be avoided.

2.14.5 Designing effective orientation and diversity skilling mechanisms

In order to attain the above, continuous and comprehensive orientation and re-orientation towards non-racialism and non-sexism (in a human rights environment), as well as the management of the role of peer pressure had to take place.

2.14.6 Redesigning supervision, support and facilitation mechanisms (live-in Residence Heads e.g.)

Given the sensitivity around various racial and cultural groups starting to come together within a residence context, it becomes imperative to have a professional adult warden or Residence Head on a 24-hour basis to provide strong guidance and support. Such a person would also ensure continuity in terms of effective management. Residence Heads would also have to play a big role in creating and maintaining an academic culture in residences.

2.14.7 The redesigning of residence governance structures

The redesigning of jurisdictions, elections, residence composition, minority representation, first year representation, and competencies and rules for residence committees received attention in this section. The redefinition of the role of residence committees and residence heads also received attention.

2.14.8 Designing mechanisms to manage risks

Several potential risks were identified. The risks areas included:

- Failing to provide a sense of belonging to all students of a non-racial, multicultural, diverse, multilingual UFS
- Potentially dominant role of “group diversity” of either white or black students
- Racial tension and racism, conflict and polarisation, potential disruption of academic activities and racial harmony
- Student flight from residences, leading to a significant reduction in diversity on campus and in student life
- Failure to retain students from a minority group
- The academic performance of residence students, which may decline as a result of “institutional trauma” etc.
- Vandalism
- Reaction of political stakeholders
- Reaction of alumni, both white and black
- Reaction of parents and potential students
- Reaction of management and Council members
- Communication and media risks
- Exploitation of the traditional phase in UFS residences by marketing offices of other universities. Financial risks to the University in case of adverse student or parent reactions to the new policy, which may lead to a decline in student numbers or in residence occupancy.

2.15 SPECIAL MEASURES FOR THE FIRST YEAR

It may be extremely difficult to first, place and secondly, keep white students in black residences. A special effort had to be made to communicate with parents of prospective students. It was perceived that a need for special measures might be necessary especially in the first year of the process (2008) to prevent conflict and students leaving residences (thus decreasing diversity)

– i.e. it was crucial to proactively develop a strategy to maintain diversity in all residences.

Possible measures could include organisational or physical/facility arrangements to ensure bonding of diverse first-year students as a group to protect them against seniors, wishing to undermine the diversity objective, as well as using selected senior students as change agents. (This problem relates in particular to the potentially domineering role of senior students, also in the context of “orientation”.)

2.16 TASK TEAMS, CAPACITY AND FINANCIAL RESOURCES

Three task teams had been appointed by Exco:

- The accommodation facilities task team, to propose a strategic plan for accommodation facilities
- The second task team to propose steps to address risks in marketing
- The third task team, to propose steps to address the other implementation issues noted above and in consultation with students and residence heads

The Director: Strategic Communication had at that time already been tasked to develop a communications strategy to support the process. It was stated that additional capacity needed to assist in the implementation and facilitation processes, would be created if deemed necessary.

Special financial allocations, to enable necessary physical alterations to residences, as well as other support mechanisms, (including interpreting services) might also be necessary and would be considered by Exco.

2.17 UNDERLYING PRINCIPLES GUIDING THIS PROCESS

The following underlying principles would be used to guide the process:

- Freedom of association: This right can be exercised freely within a diverse residence with regard to friendships, joint academic work, socialising, sport, etc.
- Compulsion versus voluntarism: Whilst the University regards the presence of a substantive and sufficient diversity in residences a non-negotiable for the educational reasons already mentioned above, the application of this principle allows substantial room for voluntary exercising of choice by individuals as well as by Residence Committees, notably in the placement of students, as well as the determination of the future “character” and traditions of a diverse residence
- Respect for preferences: Students can choose their residences: Traditions and elements of “character” that are reconcilable with the values of the University and the SA Constitution and with principles such as non-racialism, non-sexism, non-discrimination, diversity and non-dominance, can be retained (and new ones developed)
- Normalisation of human interaction in a non-racial context: this is a key element of the approach, in line with the intentions of the draft Institutional Charter
- Non-discrimination and the elimination of racism and sexism: These are key principles of the new dispensation, built on a proposed zero tolerance approach to such transgressions

2.18 REFLECTING ON THE COMMUNICATION IN THE PROCESS

In an article in “Volksblad” of 9 June 2007, Gericke reported that at a Council meeting, on 8 June 2007, a decision was taken by the Council of the UFS that separate residences for black and white students were something of the past. A new policy was put in place that was aimed at improving diversity levels in campus residences.

This new policy was in actual fact a re-affirmation of the transformation policy already accepted by the UFS in 1990. In 1990 problems arose during the

implementation and serious clashes broke out between white and black residence students on campus. This eventually led to the principle of freedom of association which in turn led to students of the same culture opting to stay together in the different residences. The new policy guidelines were designed to ensure that staff and students would be better prepared and equipped to manage the transformation process. At a news conference directly after the Council meeting, the vice chancellor, Judge Faan Hancke, and the rector, Prof. Frederick Fourie, stated that this new policy was based on educational principles and that thorough consultation had been done with all the involved stakeholders beforehand. They continued that the UFS wanted to establish a new model of residence life where students could stay together willingly and learn to appreciate diversity. This new policy would allow residences to place 50% of the first year applicants and Accommodation Services would place the remaining 50%. The policy required that as from 2008, 30% of first year students placed in traditionally white residences would be black, and in traditionally black residences 30% of the first year placements would be white. In senior residences a 50% white and 50% black ratio would be applicable. In 2009 this had to be continued so that an integration figure of 30% could be reached for first and second year students. According to the vice Rector: Student Affairs, student leaders in residences would not be left to their own devices and support would be provided. He also stated that the support of students and student leaders would be needed, especially in the initial phases of the project (Gericke 2007:2).

When the implementation of a new placement policy was announced on 8 June 2007, it was stated by the chairperson of the UFS Council, Judge Faan Hancke, and the Rector and Vice Chancellor of the UFS, Prof. Frederick Fourie that these decisions had been taken “after consultations with a range of stakeholders, especially students that resided in residences, student leaders, student organisations, as well as inputs from alumni and some parents”. (UFS facts online: nd).

Reports in the media however, painted a different picture. Burger (2007:4) reported that students were being denied the opportunity to choose the

cultural environment in which they wanted to stay during their studies. He also quoted the chairperson of the Kopsie Freedom Front Plus, Jan van Niekerk in stating that students were under the impression that the implementation of the new policy would still be discussed further with them. Van Niekerk also stated that students would not accept a decision that was made without their cooperation. In another article, Burger (2007:3) reported about a letter that was written to the UFS top management by the Alumni in which their unhappiness and concerns about the lack of communication and consultation concerning the changes that had been made to the placement policy were voiced. The chairperson of the alumni, Naude de Klerk, stated that the Alumni did not wish to prescribe to the UFS management what they should do, but that they wished to be part of the process of developing the UFS.

The following summary of the different stages of the process by Cloete (2008:10) supplies a clear indication of the reactions of different stakeholders during 2007 and 2008. During July 2007, the integration debate continued. Several members of the community felt that the process had to be supported in order to guarantee successful implementation. Others felt that not enough consultation had taken place by UFS management. Hundreds of students from the Freedom Front Plus took part in a demonstration on campus and the Free State leader of the Freedom Front Plus, Abrie Oosthuizen stated that the Freedom Front was prepared to settle the debate in court. A case was then made against the UFS. Dr. Ezekiel Moraka, Vice Rector: Student Affairs was adamant that enough consultation had taken place. During August 2007 a contingency of about 30 Sasco (South African Student Congress) members took part in a march to show their support for the integration process. The Freedom Front Plus won the SRC election and claimed 14 of the 18 seats on the SRC.

During September 2007, Prof. Frederick Fourie published articles in the local media that encouraged the implementation of the policy. About 100 members of the UFS-convocation attended a meeting and voted with 69 votes against 31 for a motion that the policy should be revoked by UFS management with

immediate effect. The UFS council took cognisance of the fact and said that it would be discussed at a later time. The UFS Council however decided later that month that they were going forward with their decision.

During October 2007, translating services were instituted in two of the ladies residences. The Freedom Front Plus withdrew its case against the UFS because of technical inconsistencies.

Mrs Naledi Pandor, minister of education stated during a parliamentary session in December that the government would send in the police if students at the UFS disrupted the integration process in any way.

During January 2008 it was experienced at many residences that students from minority groups did not show up at the residences they were placed in. UFS management proposed a discount of 50% on student accommodation accounts for students from minority groups taking up their places in residences. This proposal was however met with great dismay by amongst others the SRC, and it was not implemented.

At the onset of the process in 2008 it was clear that the process did not unfold as planned. Cloete and Burger (2008:1) reported that a serious concern of management was that most white first year students that were placed in the traditionally black residences did not take up their places in these residences. At the traditionally white residences there were also some black students that did not arrive to take up their places. It was later reported (Cloete 2008:10) that 0% white first year males and only 5% white first year females had moved into black residences. A subsequent article in Rapport reported that the UFS Student Representative Council could not convince white students to stay in the predominantly black residences (Kruger 2008: 13).

On 21 February 2008, House Committees of 22 of the 23 residences on campus, city residences included, moved out of their respective residences and camped in front of the main building of the UFS. A letter containing a long list of grievances and signed by all of the above House Committees was delivered to the rector of the UFS, Prof. Frederick Fourie. The main issues addressed in the letter included among others, the integration policy, the fact

that the UFS did not communicate with newly placed minority group students as promised, and unhappiness about the conduct of the Vice Dean: Student Affairs, Dr Choice Makheta. The students indicated that they were very unhappy about the feedback that they received from management and stated that they hoped that management would be prepared to talk to them. Dr. Ezekiel Moraka, Vice Dean: Student Affairs said that these grievances were seen in a very serious light and were receiving management's urgent attention (Cloete 2008:2).

While HC members were showing their unhappiness and camping on the area in front of the main building of the UFS, hundreds of black and white students ran rampant on campus, starting fires, burning tyres, throwing stones at buildings, breaking windows, and damaging other UFS property. An estimated R 3 million's worth of damage was done. Frustration about the way in which the integration process was handled, and the lack of communication and feedback between management and students were given as the main reasons for this behaviour. Ten students between the ages of 18 and 30 years were arrested. The UFS acquired a restraining order and students were prohibited to protest or gather in groups on campus.

After a meeting of more than five hours between management and student leaders, many of the issues raised were discussed and resolved and management undertook to address issues that needed urgent attention (Cloete 2008:2). The rector at the time, Prof. Frederick Fourie, issued a special statement stating that the vandalism of UFS property by students was unacceptable. A five hour long meeting with the student leaders and management where the issues mentioned in the memorandum were handled one by one, took place. The rector also stated that management agreed that there were certain areas where better management was needed. One of the biggest problems identified was the communication in the Student Affairs department. Responses by the SRC president and some of the primes indicated that they were glad that the UFS had eventually listened to them but was still hesitant because they were afraid that what was said at the meeting would be heard but not listened to (Cloete 2008:2).

On 26 February 2008 the infamous Reitz video, that satirised integration, surfaced. This had serious implications for race relations on the UFS campus. The rest of 2008 was mostly dedicated to dealing with issues that arose because of the Reitz video.

Cloete (2008:2) in "Volksblad" of 10 June, reported about the appointment of the Igubu Leadership agency for the amount of approximately R4 million. This agency's contract would run over a period of two-and-a-half years and they were appointed with the exclusive task of assisting the UFS in the integration of their residences. It was stated that UFS had had a very difficult year, especially concerning integration. Rudi Buys, CEO of Igubu stated that this process would involve extensive research as students and other stakeholders would be consulted about the problems concerning the process.

At the beginning of 2009 it was clear that there was very little improvement concerning the integration process. Cloete (2009:2) stated that according to Dr Ezekiel Moraka, Vice Rector: Student Affairs, white students were still very reluctant about accepting accommodation in the traditionally black residences at the UFS. He stated however that definite progress had been made in terms of residence integration. According to him, white students once again did not accept the invitation to take up residency in traditionally black residences at the UFS. Dr Moraka continued that the prescribed minimum diversity level of 30% for first and second year students for the minority racial group that was the target to be attained by 2009, was as the previous year, reached by most white residences, but in the traditionally black residences these targets were not met. Dr. Moraka continued that the fact that targets had not been attained was regarded as a challenge by the UFS and that the university was constantly looking at new ways of addressing this problem. The tendency that occurred during 2008 was continued in 2009 and most white residences had attained their transformation targets while not one of the black residences was integrated (Badenhorst 2009).

In a newspaper article published in "Volksblad" of 22 January 2010 the newly appointed Dean of Students, Mr Rudi Buys, said that the UFS was very excited and happy about the first signs of success with the 50/50 placement of

first year students. Mister Buys declared that the appointment of more diverse House Committees were implemented successfully at most residences and that first year groups in residences were also more representative of different cultural groups. When asked why most of the black residences' HC's and first year groups were not integrated, he said that there were no more black and/or white residences at the UFS and that all the residences worked hard at establishing a safe and healthy study environment. Each residence also had their unique challenges and that they supported all the residences equally with their integration challenges. He also stated that places in black residences that were not taken up by white students would not be left open and that they would be filled with students looking for campus accommodation.

From these statistics it is clear that three years into the integration process racial integration hardly took place at traditionally black residences. The dilemma faced by the UFS is to determine why the implementation of the placement policy is not succeeding in achieving its objectives.

The statistics received from the Department of Accommodation Services at the UFS give an indication of the integration levels during 2008 - 2010. These statistics are reflected in appendix A.

Although it can be presumed, as mentioned earlier, that numerous aspects impacted on the integration process, this study aims to explore the role of communication in the process.

2.19 SUMMARY

As this chapter aimed at addressing the meta-theoretical research question, a discussion of racial integration in junior female residences at the UFS formed the essence of this chapter. The route that was followed by the UFS on its way towards transformation was highlighted, and the different documents that informed the process and decisions made, were discussed. A brief history of residence integration at the UFS was also provided.

The transformational change model followed by the UFS was introduced, and the challenges, goals, strategies and projects proposed were explained. To conclude the chapter the role of communication was highlighted and statistics on the current state of affairs regarding residence integration were supplied. These statistics clearly indicate that the implementation strategy was not successful and did not reach the intended goals. This underlines the importance of this study and the potential contribution that it can make to the UFS's transformation endeavours.

In the next chapter the different dimensions of an organisation that is influenced by change will be explored.

CHAPTER 3

CHANGE AND THE CONTEMPORARY ORGANISATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Organisations have to adjust to many dramatic changes, that range from fundamental restructuring to revolutionary shifts in traditional values. These required changes are largely attributed to drastic changes in the way in which organisations respond to the environment in which they operate. Contemporary organisational functioning requires a paradigm shift from traditionally “closed” operating procedures (characterised by one-way hierarchical interorganisational communication) to highly flexible innovative and collaborative functioning. The paradox here is that organisations need existing paradigms in order to make sense of their current situations, and this can trap organisations in current paradigms (Verwey & Du Plooy-Cilliers 2003:2). Contemporary theories such as that of Weick (1993, in Verwey & Du Plooy-Cilliers 2003:2) reflect a deep restructuring of core competencies that values an organisation’s sense-making processes when dealing with environmental equivocality. Contemporary organisation theories place emphasis on the interaction processes between all components concerned with the organisation, as well as adopting a more holistic orientation towards the way in which organisations function and are structured.

An organisation should not be viewed as an entity, but rather as a process in which people and activities are continuously reorganised in order to create the best possible conditions for creative work (Verwey 1998:2). The success of any effective organisation requires the co-ordination and close integration between departments, and active contributions of individuals within the organisation (Guerra 2009:122). Changing conditions pose a particularly strong challenge for organisations. Changes in organisations have significant impact on the organisation as well as the employees that have to implement

these changes. In this chapter the contextual research question is addressed. This question addresses the dimensions of a contemporary organisation impacted by change. Against the background provided in chapter one (see 1.9.1.1) the organisation can be seen as a complex set of systems and sub-systems, all of which interact with each other, within an existing environment. Werner (2007:5) refers to the different dimensions of an organisation as the environmental, organisational, interpersonal, and intrapersonal dimensions. Supporting this view, Rollinson *et al.* (1998:647) differentiate between two broad levels, namely the micro- and macro-level of an organisation. In figure 3.1 a graphic illustration of these four dimensions is provided.

At the **micro level** the focus is on parts (or sub-systems) of an organisation, and so the unit of analysis is the individual or group. The focus at this level is to further the understanding of human behaviour in organisational settings, be it at an individual level or that of individuals in social groupings. Organisational behaviour tends to have a very humanistic approach, and there is often a very real concern for the well-being of individuals and groups. The **macro-level** perspective has a focus on the organisation as a whole: that is, the total system made up of all the subsystems. This can be highly technical in approach and lead to the impression that there is a lack of concern for the human element. The ideal according to Rollinson (1998) would be the integration of these two levels (Rollinson *et al.* 1998:647), in what they refer to as the meso-level.

This chapter will shed light on the different levels of a contemporary organisation impacted by change, as well as on the different concepts and constructs embedded in each level. The essential role of communication in an organisation will also be highlighted. All of this will be done against the background of the learning organisation as the learning organisation exemplifies the contemporary organisation.

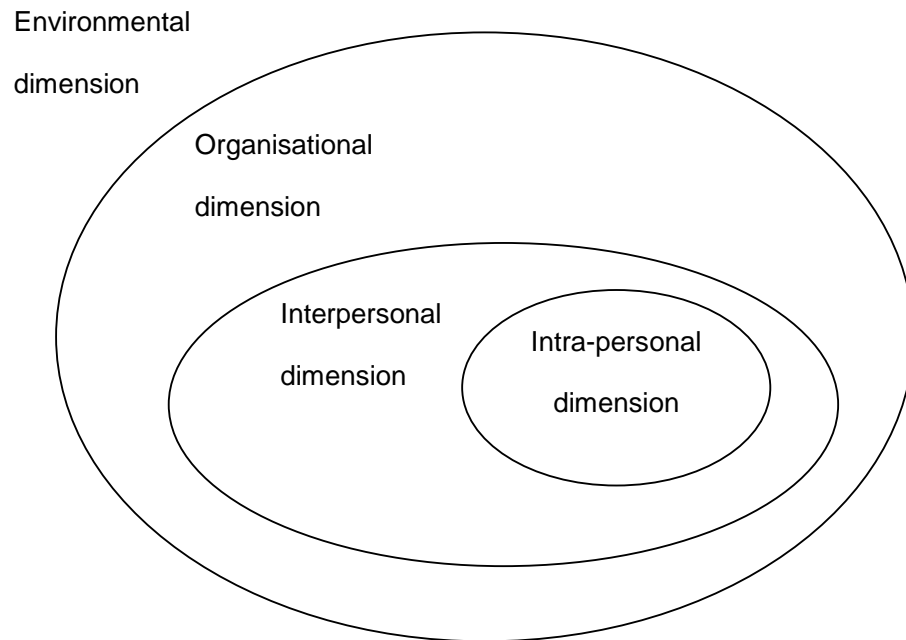


Figure 3.1: The four dimensions of a contemporary organisation affected by change

3.2 ENVIRONMENTAL DIMENSION

This discussion begins by addressing the environmental dimension as this dimension forms part of the context in which the contemporary organisation functions. The environmental dimension refers to the external environment of an organisation, as every organisation is part of the broader external environment. Some of the environmental factors that affect the organisation are technology, the economy, and social, cultural and political events. The increasing rate of change in environmental factors has emphasised the need to study the total organisation and the processes that are used by the organisation to try and adapt to external demands placed on it (Werner 2007:6-7). Each of the dimensions or levels of an organisation influences each other and collectively influences behaviour in an organisation (Werner 2007:5).

According to Van Tonder (2010:77) contemporary literature on organisations and organisational functioning consistently emphasises that the environments

in which these organisations have to operate have changed to the point that they are considered chaotic. For organisations to survive, grow and prosper in this rather unpredictable context, they have to be environmentally sensitive and aware in order to remain aligned or “in fit” with environmental change. If not, it is generally argued that the increasing disparity between organisation and environment will lead to potentially disastrous consequences. To match the ebb and flow of increasingly dynamic and turbulent environmental change, organisations will have to be capable of making similar continuous and discontinuous changes in their ways of functioning. This in turn requires constant analyses and sharing of information with stakeholders inside and outside the organisation. Communication has to become a two-way, rather than a one-way process (Fielding 2005:6). The contemporary organisation is a constantly changing organisation in which constant learning is essential (Van Tonder 2010:49). This gives rise to the concept of the learning organisation.

3.2.1 The learning organisation

Verwey and Du Plooy-Cilliers (2003:32) state that the concept of learning in organisations and their role in organisational practice did not develop in isolation. According to Verwey, (in Verwey and Du Plooy-Cilliers 2003:32) they form part of an evolutionary process in organisations, and have their roots in the systems approach (see chapter one, 1.8.2). Senge (1991), among others (Niemann 2005; Mansor *et al.* 2010; Rollinson *et al.* 1998), has forwarded the concept of the learning organisation. Using systems thinking, Senge (1991) observes that organisations are constantly changing. An organisation must engage in self-renewal, questioning of processes, and sharing of information and meaning between people in order to remain viable (Harris & Nelson 2008:28). Contemporary organisations are learning organisations that are able to adapt to new circumstances and constantly change in order to be able to deal with the demands placed on them by pressures from inside and outside the organisation.

Organisational learning can be regarded as an outgrowth of the general systems theory. When behavioural change occurs in an organisation in response to feedback, it can be concluded that learning has occurred. It can further be concluded that when adaptive changes have been made in an organisation in response to feedback in the environment, organisational learning has taken place (Niemann 2005:45).

Niemann (2005:45) adds to this definition by stating that the learning organisation has been created when the whole organisation is able to think strategically and create synergy by sharing its knowledge and ideas, and generating actions that contribute to the interests of the whole. The essence of organisational learning is the organisation's ability to use the amazing mental capacity of all its members to create the kind of process that will improve its own functioning (Mansor *et al.* 2010:63). Organisational learning (OL) is involved with the process of improving action through better knowledge and understanding (Mansor *et al.* 2010:63), and will further enable an organisation to transfer information to valued knowledge, which in turn, enriches the organisation's capacity and capability for adapting to environmental changes and demand (Yang 2003, in Mansor *et al.* 2010:63). It can be argued that effective organisational learning or an effective learning organisation, that has obtained unique knowledge, will acquire a competitive advantage over other organisations in the same field (Mansor *et al.* 2010:63).

Rollinson *et al.* (1998:59) state that in the learning organisation, change is viewed as a way of life and there is some emphasis on getting ahead of the game. The learning organisation is a contemporary organisation where challenges such as globalisation, changing market characteristics, organisational size reduction, workplace issues and ethical issues are among some of the challenges that have to be addressed on a daily basis. Verwey and Du Plooy-Cilliers' (2003:33) definition of a learning organisation concurs seeing it as a type of organisation that identifies the learning needs of its employees and of the organisation on a continuous basis, where learning is facilitated, and where employees share their knowledge in order to transform the organisation, enabling it to enhance its ability to create its own future.

According to these authors, this often requires a change of mindset, thinking differently about structures, work practice, communication systems and management styles.

3.2.1.1 Characteristics of a learning organisation

Senge (1990) characterised the learning organisation as a place “where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together”.

Verwey and Du Plooy-Cilliers (2003:33-34) summarise learning organisations as organisations where the individual is seen as a thinking, feeling and developing being who can make a valuable contribution to the organisation through a process of participation. Employees’ input is valued and they are involved in decision making. In learning organisations, communication is used to enhance understanding between management and employees, and through processes such as strategic planning. These organisations strive toward creating their own future, and therefore take responsibility for their own destiny.

It has long been predicted by the world’s most prescient observers of societal change that a new economy would emerge in which intellectual prowess, not machine capability would be the critical resource. This **intellectual capital’s** importance is highlighted by O’Keeffe (2002:131). These authors indicated the importance of each employee within an organisation, irrespective of the organisation’s size. According to them, employees are recognised as a key resource in organisations that excel. Peters (1992, in O’Keeffe 2002:131) continues that “the ability of individuals must be liberated and while strategy, organisation and processes are important, it is the workforce that is the means and driving force of organisational success”. People, according to O’Keeffe (2002:131) are a resource that needs maintenance and proper utilisation, but has a finite life and output far greater than their cost.

The commitment and functional support of management are necessary to ensure that learning in the organisation develops from discrete to organisational wide activity. Learning cannot take place in a vacuum. The juncture between emotional and cognitive aspects of learning poses the biggest challenge to human resource developers seeking to enable effective continuous learning in the workplace (O’Keeffe 2002:133). For effective learning to take place, it is essential that a culture that promotes inquiry, openness and trust be created according to Slocum *et al.* (1999, in O’Keeffe 2002:133). Organisational learning has two facets – a tangible “hardware” facet that consists of learning mechanisms and an intangible “software” facet that consists of shared values and beliefs that ensure that the mechanisms produce actual learning, in other words, new insights and behaviour and not mere rituals of learning. Schein (1990, in O’Keeffe 2002:134) states that organisational culture is a normative system of shared values and beliefs that shape how organisational members feel, think and behave. Values are also observable entities and their existence is inferred from the rhetoric of organisational members.

O’Keeffe (2002:137) states that a learning organisation strives to create values, policies and procedures in which “learning” and “working” is synonymous throughout the organisation. It is a fact that learning is inextricably bound up with organisational change and will seek to develop beyond first-order learning towards second-order change. In other words, it entails learning how to evolve the capacity to continuously generate new insights. It further involves the discomfort of experiencing the uncertainties and ambiguities associated with iterative processes of change.

3.2.1.2 Building blocks of the learning organisation

Jones and George (2003:237-238) refer to learning theorist Senge’s five principles for creating a learning organisation. According to them, Senge states that for organisational learning to occur, top managers must allow every person in the organisation to develop a sense of **personal mastery**.

Employees should be empowered by managers and allowed to experiment and create and explore what they want. As part of attaining personal mastery, organisations need to encourage employees to develop and use **complex mental models**, which are ways of thinking that challenge employees to find new or better ways of performing a task – to deepen their understanding of what is involved in a particular activity. Furthermore, managers must do everything they can to **create group creativity**. To Senge, team learning is more important than individual learning in increasing organisational learning. Managers must also emphasise the importance of building a **shared vision**. This is a common mental model that all organisational members use to frame problems or opportunities. Lastly, managers must **encourage systems thinking** as different levels in an organisation have an effect on one another.

The role that leadership plays becomes very important as an organisation moves toward becoming a learning organisation. As has been stated, the creation of a shared vision and then keeping organisational members working toward that vision is one of a leader's most important functions. Leaders should also create an environment that encourages learning. In learning organisations, all employees share at least some leadership responsibilities. This **shared leadership** that involves the sharing of decision-making and leadership creates a culture that fully supports the goals and efforts of the learning organisation (Hellriegel *et al.* 2006:384-385).

A learning organisation's **culture** is one in which everyone agrees on a shared vision and everyone recognises the inherent interrelationships among the organisation's processes, activities, functions, and external environment. A strong sense of community, caring for each other, and trust are perceived in such an organisation. Employees feel free to communicate, share, experiment, and learn openly, without fear of criticism or punishment (Hellriegel *et al.* 2006:385).

A sense of **community** and trust is developed in a learning organisation. Respect for co-workers, as well as open and honest communication is encouraged. Conflict and debate are accepted as responsible forms of communication. People who feel that they are part of a community are more

willing to make the extra effort needed to find and solve problems (Hellriegel *et al.* 2006:385).

Hellriegel *et al.* (2006:386-387) are of opinion that organisations learn in order to improve performance. In order to judge performance an organisation needs to know where it was before and where it is at that specific moment.

Performance measurement makes assessing improvement possible. Data is available to employees and is gathered, disseminated and used throughout the organisation. The days of managers hoarding information are long gone.

Numerical data is not the only information considered important in the learning organisation. “Soft” information is valued too, because organisations are sometimes more interested in anecdotal evidence than in hard data. Whereas measurements help an organisation judge how much progress has been made, soft information is the stuff of which learning is made. By **sharing information** about the problems they face and the solutions they discover, employees minimise the number of times they reinvent the wheel, and speed up the process of organisational learning. The challenge is to find effective ways to record and transmit narrative explanations of what has been learned (Hellriegel *et al.* 2006:387).

To conclude the discussion on the learning organisation, Agyris and Schon (1978, in Hayes 2007:63) distinguish between two different types of organisational (collective) learning, namely single-loop and double-loop learning. **Single-loop learning** entails the detection and correction of errors leading to a modification of the rules within the boundaries of current thinking. It involves organisational members collectively refining their mental models about how the world operates in order to do things better. No fundamental challenge is offered to current thinking.

Double-loop learning occurs when the assumptions and principles that constitute the governing variables or shared mental models are examined and challenged. This is a more cognitive process. Accepted ways of thinking are challenged and this can lead to a new understanding of events and situations. This can lead to the development of new rules that require organisational

members to change their behaviour and do things differently, or do different things. Dessler (1995:195) refers to Argyris who states that double loop-decision makers continually question their basic theories and assumptions. According to Argyris, most managers think that they are open-minded, and open to learn new ways of doing things, and having their policies challenged. They are however not. This author continues that the only way to make managers to practice double-loop learning, is to get them to see how closed their thinking has been in the past. Getting managers into the habit of checking their assumptions are also essential. Double-loop learning's important role during a change intervention is therefore apparent.

3.3 ORGANISATIONAL DIMENSION

Keyton (2005:10) defines an organisation as a **dynamic system** of organisational members influenced by external stakeholders, who communicate within and across organisational structures in a purposeful and ordered way to achieve a super-ordinate goal. With this definition, an organisation is not defined by its size, purpose or structure. Rather, an organisation is defined by the linguistic properties that reside in its internal and external **communication interdependencies**. The contemporary organisation as described in the previous section (see 1.8.3) forms the context within which communication is practiced.

Organisations do not merely exist. They are scientifically managed in order to attain predetermined goals and objectives. The main focus of organisational behaviour is organisational design, management, teams and the dynamic interaction between people and their working environment. The challenge is to create an organisation that is managed in such a way that its members are energised and engaged (Werner 2007:3).

The relationships between individuals and individuals, between individuals and groups and between groups and groups provide order and systems that direct the efforts of the organisation towards the achievement of its goals (Werner 2007:5). Communication forms the basis of relationships, especially

in terms of trust (Sandin & Simolin 2006:4). If there is no communication, a relationship cannot transfer meaning, and cannot create benefits for the relationship. When the costs become greater than the benefits, the relationship will not be pursued by the parties involved (Hallahan 2000:503). This implies that contemporary organisations wishing to survive in a world of constant change have to focus on developing strong and loyal relationships through effective honest communication.

Structure is important to members of organisations because it clarifies each member's areas of responsibility, it makes formal authority relationships clear to everyone involved in the organisation, and it enables members of the organisation to know where the different kinds of organisational knowledge are located. The predictability that this brings allows feelings of stability and trust.

Most scholars agree that an organisation involves a social **collectivity** (or a group of people) in which activities are coordinated in order to achieve both individual and collective goals. By coordinating activities, some degree of organisational structure is created to assist individuals in dealing with each other and with others in the larger organisational environment (Miller 2006:1). In all organisations some type of hierarchy is created, and the power associated with hierarchical levels is distributed through the organisational structure with some members having more rights, responsibilities and power than others (Keyton 2005:6). Keyton (2005:4-7) continues that our organisational role, with the exception of occasional variations, provides us with expectations and structures for our behaviours while we are engaged in that role.

Organisations are **living systems** with numerous **subsystems** exchanging energy, information and meaning through a mirage of networks and channels. According to Hayes (2007:44), the systems perspective on organisations describes an organisation as a system of interrelated components that transact with a larger environment. From the open-systems perspective, several characteristics of organisations can be identified. These organisations are **embedded within a larger system**, meaning that

organisations are dependent on a larger system (environment) for the resources, information and feedback that they require in order to survive (Hayes 2007:44). Through the exchange of matter, energy and information with the larger environment organisations can forestall, or are **able to avoid entropy**, which is the predisposition to decay. They can even increase their vitality over time. Groups and organisations, in contrast to people (partially closed systems), have the potential for indefinite life (Hayes 2007:44). Miller (2006:78) states that organisations have **negative entropy**. Entropy is the tendency of closed systems to run down. Open systems, however is characterised by negative entropy, they have the ability to sustain themselves and grow. Negative entropy is possible because of the flow of information and materials between the environment and the system. For a system to be viable, interchanges with the environment is essential for survival. The fact that a system is “open” does not mean that it automatically interchanges with the environment. Negative entropy in action means that the system fights off deterioration and perhaps strives through active exchange with the system’s environment (Miller 2006:78).

From an open systems perspective organisations are **regulated by feedback**, which implies that systems rely on information about their outputs to regulate their inputs and transformation processes. Feedback loops exist between the various internal components of the system. Consequently changes in any component can affect changes in other components (Hayes 2007:45).

Organisations are also **subject to equifinality** which means that the same outcomes can be produced by configuring the system in different ways (Hayes 2007:45). Katz and Kahn (1978, in Miller 2006:77) state that “a system can reach the same final state from differing initial conditions and by a variety of paths”. This implies that because a system is complex and interconnected, there is more than one single path to any system outcome.

Within an open systems perspective organisations are **cyclical in their mode of functioning** as events are patterned and tend to occur in repetitive cycles of input, throughput and output. Organisations are **equilibrium seeking**,

because open systems tend to gravitate to a state where all the component parts of the system are in equilibrium and where a steady state exists. Whenever changes occur that upset this balance, different components of the system move to restore the balance (Hayes 2007:45).

External boundaries differentiate the organisation from the larger environment and regulate the flow of organisation, energy and matter between the system and its environment. Internal boundaries differentiate the various components of the system from each other and regulate the inputs and outputs of sub-systems (Hayes 2007:45).

Another characteristic identified is **holism** which suggests that a system is “more than the sum of its parts”. Systems have this property because of the interdependent nature of their components and the information that flows through the process of feedback and exchange (Miller 2006:77). A final system property deals with the relationship between a system and its environment. The property of **requisite variety**, states that a system’s internal workings must be as diverse and as complicated as the environment in which it is embedded (Miller 2006:78). The internal complexity necessary to cope with external complexity should be maintained.

Contemporary organisations are dynamic and dedicated to continuous improvement and learning. These organisations are learning organisations that have the drive and capabilities to improve performance continuously, based on experience. Organisational learning can be regarded as an outgrowth of the systems theory. Systems thinking essentially seek to understand organisations and their internal and external connections with the environment as a whole. Understanding an organisation as a system in which human interaction constitutes the organisation emphasises the importance of organisational communication. The aspect of organisational communication will now be explored.

3.3.1 Organisational communication

Organisational communication is primarily concerned with the content, structure, and process of human interaction through language and other symbols in day-to-day organisational activities (Papa *et al.* 2008:4). Keyton (2005:13) is of opinion that organisational communication is a complex and continuous process through which organisational members create, maintain, and change the organisation. It is important to note that all organisational members participate in this process and that communication is not the sole responsibility or privilege of managers. Even if managers create and send most of the messages, their subordinates and peers create meaning from the messages. While the process is said to be transactional, involving and enacting both sender and receiver roles to create mutual and shared meanings, shared meaning is not always achieved in organisational settings. Goldhaber (1990:16) uses a functionalist paradigm to define organisational communication stating that: "Organisational communication is the process of creating and exchanging messages within a network of interdependent relationships to cope with environmental uncertainty".

The more one becomes aware of the ineffective uses of communication in organisations, the harder the subject becomes to study. As more knowledge about communication is gained, the more one understands that all behaviour is potentially communicative and that each individual is both an actor and a reactor in the communication process. Each individual applies his/her own perceptual and interpretive lens to other's communication behaviours. Individuals' simultaneous response to and production of behaviours ensures truly astonishing possibilities. A host of circumstances impact the communication outcome each time one chooses a particular behaviour. This seeming paradox can be resolved by a systematic study of organisational communication (Harris & Nelson 2008:15). According to Harris and Nelson (2008:17), viewing communication as a transaction leads to the following three conclusions (Adler & Towne 2003; Harris & Sherblom 2005). These conclusions are that the process is complex and dynamic and that transactions are contextual and therefore irreversible, unique, and

unrepeatable. Communication is interpreted on the basis of the circumstances, and once it has occurred, that particular set of events cannot be repeated in identical form. As a process, communication has no definite beginning or end, almost all organisational communication occurs in the context of ongoing activities, relationships and goals. Everyone can be simultaneously affected and can affect every other member of the transaction. This means we are sending and receiving at the same time (Harris & Nelson 2008:17).

In order to develop our organisational communication skills, two perspectives need to be understood. Firstly organisational communication is the process by which individuals stimulate meaning in the minds of other individuals by means of verbal or nonverbal messages in the context of an organisation (Fielding 2005:4).

Secondly, all organisations regard communication as essential for survival. Organisations are concerned with a wide range of communication activities. Through communication people are able to co-ordinate their activities. This co-ordination makes organised behaviour possible (Fielding 2005:4). A few common stands can be detected here:

- Organisational communication occurs within a complex open system which is influenced by and influences its environments, both internal (called culture) and external.
- Organisational communication involves messages and their flow, purpose, direction, and media.
- Organisational communication involves people and their attitudes, feelings, relationships, and skills.

In the next section communication that takes place within the boundaries of an organisation will be discussed.

3.3.2 Internal communication in organisations

The constructivist approach states that communication is a social process of interaction and/or interpretation that gives sense and meaning to a social reality, or organisational actions, events and organisational roles and processes (Mazzei 2010:223). Internal communication is generally defined as the communication flow among people within the boundaries of an organisation. Many scholars emphasise that effective internal communication is a prerequisite for a positive external organisational image (Mazzei 2010:221). Argenti (1996:77) indicates that as a result of the changing business environment, organisations have taken cognisance of how they communicate with employees, which is also known as internal communication. Power and Rienstra (1999:504), and Trout, De Leon and Batemen (1995:51) describe internal communication as a process of communication within the organisation itself. This process involves gathering, processing, dissemination and storing of information, or as defined by Welch and Jackson (2007:183) “the strategic management of interactions and relationships between stakeholders at all levels within the organisation”.

The internal communication function is often discussed under the heading of employee communication suggests Argenti (1998), or organisational communication (Grunig1992) and corporate or business communication (Kitchen 1997; Rawlins 1993; Oliver 1997, in Kitchen & Daly 2002:49). In an ever changing environment, organisations are focusing on retaining a happy, effective workforce through what is now referred to as internal communication (Argenti 1998, in Kitchen & Daly 2002:49). According to Newstrom and Davis (1997:49) the importance of communication within an organisation is a vital mechanism in the functioning of the organisation. Communication is required in order to manage people successfully. The quality of the communication between the people in an organisation is a “crucible variable determining the success of the organisation” (Hargie & Tourish 1993, in Kitchen & Daly 2002:47). Internal communication is so entwined with the process of organising and organisational structure, as well as environment, power, and culture that many organisational communication theorists argue that

organisations would not exist without communication (Grunig 1992, in Kitchen & Daly 2002:47).

Quinn and Hargie (2004:146) believe that effective internal communication is a key concept that attempts to increase participation, increase organisational affinity, secure widespread ownership of corporate goals and implement total quality management programmes.

The link between internal communication and the successful management of change is of extreme importance in an organisation (Kitchen & Daly 2002:46). Effective internal communication, where the communication process is regarded as a transaction and a creation of meaning, can therefore not be stressed enough. However, the successful implementation of internal communication has its own challenges which will be elaborated on in the next section.

3.3.2.1 Internal communication obstacles

Many difficulties which result in communication problems within organisations are cited by De Greene (1982, in Kitchen & Daly 2002:50). These include transmission problems such as one-sided (especially downward) communication processes, suppression of information, errors in the facts being communicated, the grapevine and rumour mill, purposeful distortion, and lastly, receivers may misinterpret given information purposefully, or simply by not listening.

Additional obstacles regarding internal communication were identified by Bratton and Gold (1999, in Kitchen & Daly 2002:50). These are:

- Communicating is not regarded as fundamental to the process of organising
- The failure to acknowledge organisational communication's role in providing insight into management strategies
- Senior management structures are not committed to communication
- Effective leadership skills do not encompass communication skills

- Management not taking responsibility for devising and maintaining the communication system of the organisation
- Failure to use a combination of written and face-to-face channels
- Messages are not being perceived as relevant by employees
- Messages and actions are inconsistent
- The effectiveness of the system is not improved by training in communication skills
- The communication system is not monitored and evaluated.

The issues of internal communication can be extremely multidimensional. It is evident that culture, for example, can have a phenomenal impact on the handling of conflict, both national and organisational, or on problem solving and decision making within an organisation (Kitchen & Daly 2002:50).

Apart from the obstacles mentioned in the previous discussion, an organisation's approach to communication can contribute to the ineffective use or failure of successful organisational communication. Often communication develops separate specialities and departments within organisations and these separate "islands of communication" Gayeski (1993b, in Gayeski & Woodward 1996:2) grow and move further apart, often resulting in fragmented, redundant, or even contradictory communication programmes and messages. Such communication messages lead to information overload, a loss of credibility, and wasted resources (Gayeski & Woodward 1996:2). To counter such fragmented communication efforts, an organisation should integrate its communication activities under an umbrella strategy.

3.3.3 Integrated communication in organisations

Integrated communications (IC) is broadly defined by Gayeski and Woodward (1996:3) as the application of analysis, communication, and evaluation techniques to create and manage integrated, multi-faceted interventions combining information, instruction, collaboration, business process design, feedback, and incentive systems to improve human performance in the workplace in order to achieve an organisation's desired missions and visions.

In IC, the internal messages in the organisation are just as important as the messages that are communicated externally. Internal messages are vital in the organisation to ensure agreement inside the organisation, looking at organisational procedure, the organisational purpose and unity of achievement within the organisation. "Communication integration in which every aspect of the communication mix is brought together in a master strategy, is the future of effective organisations", suggests Mulder (2004:235). However, the successful implementation of IC still seems somewhat idealistic to most organisations, and most major organisations have yet to fully implement the foundational ideas contained in IC (Kreps 1990:94).

3.3.3.1 *Problems in IC implementation*

Dobrescu (2009:1699) identifies several sources which block IC implementation. According to him, problems can arise when each system of the organisation tries to solve the problems that arise without taking the interests of the system as a whole into consideration. The insufficient management of the registered results as successes within the organisation, together with the insufficient correlation of communication tools and the limiting of the thinking of co-workers to the sector or section that contains their particular interests, are factors that negatively impact on the implementation of IC. Furthermore, IC is often not centered on the objectives of the organisation and no purposes for IC are formulated. Difficulties in correlating some communication tools, fear of losing positions or resources, and the lack of availability to co-ordinate the measure for an IC approach also hamper the implementation thereof.

In organisations where there is no effective co-ordination, the lack of truly integrated communication can lead to a gradual or sudden deterioration of the company's credibility and reputation (Drobis 1997/1998, in Mulder 2008:95). This happens when all stakeholders do not receive the same messages. Credibility is only derived by giving stakeholders the same information in a timely fashion. Consistency is critical as inconsistent messages create

confusion, contribute to misinformation and speculation. All of these damage corporate reputation, trust and inevitably relationships and are detrimental to communication in a changing environment. To counter this, IC should be used to contribute in establishing a strong organisational culture.

Through conceptual analysis, Mulder (2008:179) identified the basic principles of IC and showed the similarities of these principles with the components present in a strong organisational culture. These similarities are illustrated in Table 3.1.

	Basic principles of IC	Corporate culture components
1	Holistic business approach (Strategic driven)	Employees and managers share the same core value of productivity and performance
		Organisation culture provides the necessary standard that an employee recognises and is willing to honour (ethos)
		Organisational culture (ethos) as the driving force behind the successful operations of the organisation
		Organisational culture facilitates the generation of commitment to something larger than interest in Oneself
2	Relationship management	Encourage positive and respectful relationships among management and employees, and between employees and other stakeholder groups.
3	Brand integration	A strong corporate culture creates a distinction between one organisation and another, and projects the organisation's uniqueness
4	Customer-centricity	A close relationship with the customer is essential
5	Strategic consistency	Exhibit both unity of purpose and the diversity necessary for innovation
6	Stakeholder focus and segmentation	Excellent organisations gear decisions and actions to the needs of customers, people are seen as important.
7	Sustainable success	
8	Corporate mission	Demonstrate a strong, unifying corporate philosophy and mission
9	Stakeholder-conscious employees	
10	Message consistency	
11	Contact synergy	A strong corporate culture creates a distinction between one organisation and another, and projects the organisation's uniqueness
12	Purposive dialogue	

13	Financial accountability	
14	Cross-functional planning	Avoid complex structures and divisions of labour
15	Core competencies	Stay focused on what they do best and avoid radical diversification
16	Database management	Excellent organisations react quickly and do not spend excess time planning and analysing
17		Encourage employees to take risks in the development of new ideas

Table 3.1 (Adapted from Mulder 2008)

3.3.4 Organisational culture

Werner (2007:2) states that most definitions of organisational culture agree that it refers to a system of shared assumptions held by members, which distinguishes one organisation from others. According to Jandt (2004, in Mulder 2008:175) organisational culture includes a set of values, goals, and priorities that is encouraged through the policies and procedures of an organisation.

There are many factors that affect organisational culture; these overlap and interact to create an overall cultural belief. This cultural belief is instilled into employees over a period of time until it becomes a semiconscious norm. Rye (1996:14) highlighted the interface between change and organisation culture stating that:

Change, of whatever form interfaces with three main organisational components which effectively constitute the corporate culture. Change management must take into account each of these three components, which are: the historical and political evolution of the company; the management and organisation of the company; and the people who work for the company.

Organisational culture is defined by Clappitt (2007:47) "as the underlying belief and value structure of an organisation collectively shared by the employees and symbolically expressed in a variety of overt and subtle ways." Thus, there is a certain organisational style that reflects the specific ways in

which things are being done in that organisation. The values may not always clearly be articulated, but they are there and the organisation functions according to them. Verwey and Du Plooy-Cilliers (2003:131) add that corporate culture is a general configuration of beliefs, morals, customs, value systems and behavioural norms unique to each organisation that describe the behavioural patterns and expressions that characterise the existence of the organisation. Corporate culture therefore denotes the philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and norms that bind an organisation together.

Keyton (2005:21) cites Schein (1992) defining organisational or corporate culture as “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group [social units of all sizes] learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.” According to Harris and Nelson (2008:80) there is a symbiotic relationship between an organisation’s communication processes, its culture and environment. An organisation’s culture is simultaneously somewhat stable but constantly evolves as new challenges are encountered. According to Werner (2007:27) an organisation does not have only one defined culture. Organisations often have many sub-cultures, however the core values of an organisation that are shared by most members are reflected in the dominant culture. The culture in an organisation influences employee behaviour and performance. A manager that understands the culture in an organisation will be able to determine whether it enhances or hinders overall organisational performance. This knowledge will enable a manager to decide whether the culture of the organisation should be reinforced or modified (Werner 2007:27).

Excellent organisations are motivating because of their organisational cultures. When an organisation espouses one philosophy but practices another, employees become disheartened and disillusioned. The organisational culture essentially provides a unique point of commonality and identity and distinguishes employees from those in other organisations

(Clampitt 2005:50). Saeed (2005:142) refers to Trompenaars (1993) and Mead (1998) who state that a strong positive organisational culture is one in which its members support senior management and the relationship between senior management and workers is good. Mead (1998, in Saeed 2005:142) states that a culture in which there are incongruous and often contradictory value systems and a lack of communication among members, is referred to as a weak culture. When the culture is negative, relationships with management are bad and conditions opposite to those that prevail in strong cultures. Disunity, mistrust, and a lack of communication among organisational members are traits of a negative culture. Strong organisational cultures give rise to positive relationships between management and staff. Communication is easy, open, and fruitful; morale is high and productivity climbs (Mead 1998, in Saeed (2005:142).

Three different perspectives on organisational cultures are described by Torp (2009:201), as namely the integration perspective, the differentiation perspective and the fragmentation perspective. In the context of this study, attention will be paid to the integration perspective. The integration perspective can be characterised in terms of the view that organisational cultures are built on a consensus that embraces the entire organisation, in the sense that everybody within the organisation is fundamentally agreed, for example, on certain key values, and that there is – or should be – consistency and cognitive clarity. This aspiration to consistency, which is inherent in the integration perspective, ideally speaking, wishes every single element in the organisation and every single cultural manifestation to be able to holographically accommodate or represent the entire culture of the organisation. In the integrated organisation, the interpretation of each small aspect of its culture reflects the whole in embryonic form (Torp 2009:201). From the integrated perspective the organisation is perceived and articulated as one big family (Torp 2009:201). Regardless of whether the members of the organisation are at the top or bottom of the organisational hierarchy, they fundamentally agree about the things that are important to the organisation and to its internal life. If an organisation has the components of a strong

culture, it will be a better place for individuals to work in and will improve both individual and organisational performance (Mulder 2008:176). In line with the integrative perspective to organisational culture is the notion of IC (as illustrated in table 3.1).

3.3.4.1 Organisational culture and change

One of the biggest obstacles to change in an organisation is the self-reinforcing value structure of the existing organisational culture. Therefore, if change has to take place, organisational cultures must be changed (Nelson & Coxhead 1997:35). This has been found to be easier said than done. Records of the past decade on the design and implementation of culture change projects are not encouraging. To be successful, people must begin to think and act in new, often uncomfortable ways. A lot of learning and unlearning have to take place. The transition period may last months or several years. Nelson and Coxhead (1997:35) state that several well-known change authors all agree that implementing change is much harder than designing change. The reason for this is the fact that resistance is high during implementation when people begin to see and face what change means for them at a very personal level. It is therefore critical to involve those who will directly be affected by the changes as well as those who are responsible for making the changes happen during the culture change project. Without these stakeholders' support the change effort has a much greater probability for failure (Nelson & Coxhead 1997:35). An organisation's culture is the product of its history, of its accumulated experiences and the lessons it has learnt in seeking to survive and prosper. What is valued, what is assumed and what is lodged in the organisational memory, often unconsciously, is what has worked for it in the past (Nelson & Coxhead 1997:35).

Organisational culture can only be changed cumulatively. People and organisations can add their experience but they cannot subtract from it, and while additional new experiences can modify values and beliefs, they cannot remove the effects of those past experiences through which the culture of the

organisation, or the character of the individuals were formed. Impressing on an organisation that it needs to change its culture is like impressing on individuals that they need to change their character and behaviour: for those involved in and embraced by it, culture is not a variable, but a given and any criticism of it is likely to be interpreted as a fault of the critic, not of the organisation. Moreover, the more successful the organisation has been in the past, the more strongly its culture has been reinforced by that success, and the more resistant it would be to the prospect of change and the more likely it is to fail as a consequence (Hendry & Hope, 1994 in Nelson & Coxhead 1997:36).

It has been stated that the culture of an organisation describes the unique sense of place and how the organisation describes itself. The reaction to an organisation's culture is known as the organisation's communication climate (Shockley-Zalabak 1991:71).

3.3.4.2 Organisational climate and organisational communication climate

Goodell (1992:323) states that it is logical that the environment that people experience in their organisations influences at least some part of their behaviour. Pascoe and More (2008:75) are of opinion that many authors see climate as the experienced environment of the organisation, which has widespread influence, and that is enduring over time. Climates in organisations can range from nurturing to stultifying. Allen (2003:63) states that organisational climate is a reflection of the way people perceive and come to describe the characteristics of their environment. Without a positive climate there is little hope for achieving excellence in an organisation (Harris & Nelson 2008:87-88).

Verwey and Du Plooy-Cilliers (2003:135) distinguish between two types of communication climate, namely defensive and supportive. **Defensive communication climates** are typical of autocratic organisations that are more closed and rigid and focus on problem solving and conflict, the

formulation of rules, policies and systems in which members are forced to complete certain actions. **Supportive communication climates** are characterised by trust, openness, increased participation and loyalty.

The **communication climate** of an organisation refers to the extent and type of communication patterns that emerge within that organisation; these patterns are partially a function of the perceptions managers and employees have of the organisation as a whole. In organisations where the communication climate is perceived as open and supportive of communication, a greater number of, and a greater degree of participation in communication relationships can be expected (Monge & Eisenberg 1987, in Pascoe & More 2008:76). The concept of supportive communication climate can be defined as one that reduces perceptions of threat. By contrast, a defensive communication climate is one that produces perceptions of threat or the anticipation of threat (Pascoe & More 2008:76).

The climate in an organisation according to Shockley-Zalabak (1991:70) is a subjective reaction to organisational members' perception of communicative events. This subjective reaction is shared to a great extent either by individual groups or the entire organisation. Charles Redding (1972, in Shockley-Zalabak 1991:70) proposed that the collective beliefs that become the communication climate are associated with five communication factors: (1) supportiveness; (2) participative decision making; (3) trust, confidence, credibility; (4) openness and candour; and (5) high performance goals. Underlying the notion of this assumption is the idea that the more supportive or positive the climate, the greater the satisfaction of individual employees (Shockley-Zalabak 1991:70). The impact of a negative communication climate can therefore have serious implications on the communication of change.

In the light of the above discussion about organisational climate, it is clear that the climate and culture of an organisation play an essential part in the lives of the employees and the functioning and practices of the organisation.

When the culture of an organisation has to change, the use of external consultants that can view the organisation from a more objective perspective is then sometimes helpful in obtaining the necessary input from employees. This process is discussed in chapter 4 (see 4.6).

3.4 INTERPERSONAL DIMENSION

At the interpersonal dimension of a contemporary organisation the focus is on the communication between individuals in the organisation. The type of communication relationships and the communication strategies, as well as relational development, and the different types of relationships that develop in organisations, together with their impact on the different dimensions of the organisation, are of particular interest at this dimension (Feldner & D'Urso, 2010:9).

Conrad and Poole (2005:9) state that just as we create relationships through conversation, we also create organisations through conversation. For organisational communication theorists this implies that communication is more than the transfer of information, it is a complex multi-dimensional process through which organising takes place. Interpersonal or dyadic communication (Applbaum *et al.* 1973:9) is communication between people that exists on a continuum from very impersonal to highly personal. The most impersonal communication occurs when we ignore another person or treat another as an object. In the middle of the continuum is interaction with others within social roles. The most personal communication occurs in what philosopher Buber (1970, in Wood 2006:22) called "I-Thou" relationships, in which each person treats the other as a unique and sacred person (Wood 2006:22). A great deal of communication in organisations is interpersonal. This type of communication calls for good control of language, good listening, sensitivity to non-verbal communication and tolerance. It involves a range of spoken and written messages (Fielding 2005:21).

3.4.1 Basic concepts at the interpersonal dimension

Almost everyone in an organisation find themselves a member of one or more groups. In an effort to capitalise on the collective competencies that flow from human interaction, there is a strong tendency worldwide to organise employees into teams. People in groups develop their own hierarchies and leaders, and group pressures can exert a major influence on the behaviour and performance of individual group members (Werner 2007:5). According to Mulder (2008:174), cultural sensitivity nowadays has to be central to organisational operations at the interpersonal dimension and adds that managers, who are culturally sensitive to their employees, substantially contribute to organisational success. Unfortunately, managers are often not well equipped to deal with the cultural diversity in their organisations. The benefits of diversity in a global economy are well recognised (Allen, Dawson, Wheatley and White (2008, in Turnbull *et al.* 2009:28-29). Managing diversity in an organisation is imperative, and yet challenges continue to exist. Organisational members do not always realise the influence and impact they have on others. Therefore, there is a need to build their toolkit of intercultural competence. Such knowledge is essential in today's organisations. If the organisational goal of embedding an inclusive environment is at odds with the values, behaviour, attitudes and feelings of its employees, then the goal will not be fully achieved (Turnbull *et al.* 2009:28-29).

Interpersonal communication is a major component of organisational behaviour at every level (Maes, Weldley & Icenogle 1997). Interpersonal communication requires a repertoire of skills with which we perform the appropriate acts in response to the situation. Our organisational setting frames the range and types of acts available to us (Harris & Nelson 2008:275-278). Interpersonal communication is important in building and sustaining human relationships at work and cannot be replaced by advances in technology and data management or any other means (Nelson & Quick 2008:175).

As **teamwork** is increasingly becoming part of the workplace, Tubbs (1998, in Wood 2006:23) believes that learning to communicate effectively in teams has

become a criterion for success and advancement in careers (Wood 2006:23). Teamwork also implies some form of leadership. **Leadership** in organisations is the process of guiding and directing the behaviour of people in the work environment (Quick & Nelson 2009:398). Gibson *et al.* (1991:372) state that “Leadership is an attempt at influencing the activities of followers to willingly co-operate through the communication process toward the attainment of some goal or goals.” This implies that leadership involves the use of influence, that the importance of communication in the process cannot be ignored, and that there are certain goals that have to be accomplished. Leader effectiveness, according to these authors is typically measured by the accomplishment of one or a combination of all of these elements. Leadership will be discussed further in chapter four.

Along the same lines, the study of **power** and its effects is important in understanding how organisations operate. Every interaction and every social relationship in an organisation involves an exercise of power. The way in which organisational sub-units and individuals are controlled is related to the issue of power (Gibson *et al.* 1991:333). Power is an integral part of organisational life. Power is a social construct; it is gained through interaction. No person is endowed with power. People are given power by others based on the messages they exchange and the relationships they develop. Within the substantial literature on power and politics in organisations is a significant tradition that defines the workplace as essentially political (Fimbel 1994:7). Jackall (1988:11) concurs and states that individual interests can be advanced or retarded within an organisation.

Political behaviour, according to Gibson *et al.* (1991:353) occurs when a person behaves outside the legitimate, recognised power system in order to benefit the individual or a subunit, often at the expense of the organisation in general. According to Quick and Nelson (2009:374-375), **organisational politics** is the use of power and influence in organisations. The effects of political behavior in organisations can be quite negative when such behaviour is strategically undertaken to maximise self-interest. If employees view the

organisation's political climate as extreme, they experience more anxiety, tension, fatigue, and burnout.

Another important concept within the interpersonal dimension is **conflict**. There are innumerable contexts for organisational conflict, with different people striving for different goals using different communication strategies. Conflict arises out of perceived constraints on the accomplishment of individual or organisational needs and goals. Effective communication in conflict situations can help people improve their interpersonal relationships by becoming more sensitive and responsive to one another's needs and goals and by developing more mutually fulfilling interpersonal contracts (Quick & Nelson 2009:375).

When the source of the message is from one culture, and the receiver from another we refer to **intercultural communication**. Here, the communication process is affected by differing and sometimes conflicting rules which define acceptable communication between individuals and between groups (Wood 2006:9). Intercultural communication is an increasingly important focus of research, teaching, and training. Although not a new area of study, the importance of this field has grown in recent years. Scholars of intercultural communication increase awareness of different cultures' communication practices. A particularly recent trend in the study of intercultural communication is research on different social communities within a single society (Wood 2006:27).

Mulder (2008:172) states that contemporary societies in many parts of the world are increasingly characterised by a multicultural population composition. This could potentially affect the quality of communication (and organisational communication) as communication is, in many respects, linked to culture. Unfortunately, managers are often not well equipped to deal with the cultural diversity in their organisations.

It is important for managers to develop the skills necessary to manage change effectively, as organisational change, conflict and politics are intertwined. Organisational change can affect practically all aspects of organisational

functioning including the organisation's structure, culture, strategies, control systems, groups and teams, the organisational leadership, as well as interpersonal and intrapersonal communication. The intrapersonal dimension will now be discussed.

3.5 INTRAPERSONAL DIMENSION

The individual is the central figure in organisational behavior and the focus of any behavioural situation. No matter how sophisticated an organisation's strategy and technology, the human factor inevitably is key to success (Kreitner & Kinicki 1995:vii). A strong relationship exists between the individual and the organisation. Frustration and conflict may result if the needs of the individual and the demands of the organisation are incompatible (Werner 2007:5). Each individual in an organisation represents the intrapersonal dimension.

Without an effective system at the intrapersonal dimension, an organism is unable to function in its environment – that is, to be open to external forms of communication. It can be concluded that at the intrapersonal dimension communication takes place within us; it includes the act of talking to ourselves and the acts of observing and attaching meaning (intellectual and emotional) to our environment (Appelbaum *et al.* 1973:13). Behaviour seen on other levels of an organisation starts at the intrapersonal level.

For most individuals, their organisational experiences influence how they evaluate their individual self-worth and achievements. An individual's organisational experiences result from the attitudes, beliefs, preferences, and abilities the individual brings to the organisation, how the organisation seeks to influence the individual and what types of organisational relationships the individual develops. Each person brings to the organisation his or her personal needs, predispositions for behaviour, communication competencies, expectations and skills. Personal mastery is the discipline of continually clarifying and deepening our personal vision, of focusing our energies, of developing patience, and of seeing reality objectively. As such it is an

essential cornerstone of the learning organisation (Senge 1990:7). Employees must be willing to learn and change in order for the learning organisation to succeed. Continuous learning of individuals in the organisation holds great benefits for the organisation. Individual learning is therefore encouraged by learning organisations. The culture of empowerment places responsibility on employees for problem-solving and problem-finding. The flat, team-base structure found in learning organisations facilitates learning (Hellriegel *et al.* 2006:385).

Communication satisfaction is important to individuals, as communication is linked to job performance and job satisfaction. Communication experiences with supervisors and peers are so influential that they contribute to the quality and quantity of the individual's work. This suggests that individuals that are satisfied with organisational communication experiences are more likely to be effective performers and to be satisfied with their jobs than those who have less positive communication experiences and relationships (Shockley-Zalabak 1991:134). Shockley-Zalabak (1991:136) continues that most individuals want to identify with the organisation for which they work. Most want to be satisfied with organisational communication, as well as other aspects of the job. Among the primary influences in our relationships with supervisors, peers and subordinates are the individual characteristics that we possess – characteristics that can be described as our **intrapersonal experience**. Our intrapersonal experience comprises our personal needs, predispositions for behaviour, communication competencies, and expectations.

The intrapersonal level of each employee is impacted by change in the organisation. Within the context of this study an in-depth discussion of the impact of change on the individual and the connections to the groups that they form part of is therefore deemed essential.

3.5.1 The impact of change on individuals in group settings

The component of self-concept, referred to as *social identity*, which derives from a person's memberships in social groups and social categories is an

important focus of attention when considering how different groups of employees interpret information about change, especially when organisational in-groups and social identities are threatened by restructuring, downsizing, and mergers (Ellemers, de Gilder & Haslam 2004; Hogg & Terry 2000).

Rooney *et al.* (2010:67) continue that people in organisations develop strong connections to places to the extent that they seek to preserve those connections that enhance their self-esteem (Twigger-Ross & Uzzell 1996). Employees and their groups usually occupy specific places in organisations that psychologically and socially support the existence of the groups they seek to advantage and defend (Hogg & Terry 2000). Place-identity dynamics, therefore, are all but unavoidable in organisations and play an important role in influencing responses to organisational change.

Social identity theory (SIT) proposes that people's psychological connections to their teams, professions, and organisations contribute to and enhance a positive sense of self. SIT has largely underplayed the importance of place identity in organisations and has not examined in depth how employees establish social identities linked to the places they inhabit. Exceptions include the work of Elsbach and Pratt (2004) who explored the role of physical space and physical markers in establishing workplace identities in office environments (e.g. Elsbach 2003, 2004). In a recent review, Elsbach and Pratt (2007) summarised research focused on the physical environment and artifacts that comprise an office environment and outline the aesthetic, instrumental, and symbolic functions that these aspects serve for employees. Rooney *et al.* (2010:46) take this research a step further and explore the role of employee place identification in influencing attitudes toward organisational change. Although research shows that identities based on memberships of work units, teams or organisations influence perceptions of organisational change (e.g. Ellemers *et al.* 2004; Hogg & Terry 2000), little is known about the connections between place and the formation of these identities or how a connection to place influences responses to organisational change.

Rooney *et al.* (2010:47) cite Proshansky, Fabian and Kaminoff (1983) as describing place identity as a “pot-pourri of memories, conceptions, interpretations, ideas, and related feelings about specific physical settings as well as types of settings”. This connection between the self and the setting is highest among those who have the most extensive place histories and a higher sense of place dependence (Pretty, Chipuer & Bramston 2003), although individuals can actively construct their own positioning in their environment (Dixon & Durrheim 2000; Pretty *et al.* 2003 in Rooney *et al.* 2010:47). Disruptions to place identity are linked to accounts of place alienation, nostalgia, disorientation, and dislocation (Dixon & Durrheim 2000; Speller Lyons & Twigger-Ross 2002). As people form emotional attachments to the places in which they live and work, they are more likely to resist changes to those places (Korpela 1989; Proshansky *et al.* 1983). These place identities develop through a continuing series of positive and negative events that together contribute to the development of the person (Gieryn 2000; Manzo 2003). Positive and negative experiences in these contexts produce particular values, attitudes, feelings, beliefs, and narratives about the physical world that define a person’s place identity. Place identity is not only constructed through experience with the physical setting but also a function of what people do and communicate to each other and what people think is good or bad in a place (Twigger-Ross & Uzzell 1996). Bonaiuto and associates (1996) argued that identification with a place is linked to cognitive strategies that help to preserve in-group identities by promoting positive in-place distinctiveness. Given the way in which place identity operates through people’s interactions with others in a place, one can argue that place identity is a component of social identity. Thus, in line with the intergroup focus of SIT, it is argued that different groups of people with different experiences and histories of a place are likely to have different patterns of place identification that affect their perceptions of change (Twigger-Ross & Uzzell 1996). Sense of place needs to be recognised as a key resource for enhancing social identities, which in turn protect and enhance employee self-esteem and self-efficacy (Twigger-Ross & Uzzell 1996) that employees seek to defend and enhance (Hogg & Terry 2000).

The abovementioned is of particular interest to this study as students and resident heads have a very strong sense of loyalty to the residence in which they reside, and a strong sense of belonging is also usually present. The campus residences are often described as “a home away from home” and are therefore regarded as belonging to a certain group of people. A very strong emotional element or connection is thus involved.

Studies of organisational change demonstrate that people in different positions in an organisational hierarchy, with different roles to play in a change process, evaluate the change differently. As previous change studies reveal (Martin, Jones & Callan 2006; Terry, Carey & Callan 2001), many lower level staff feel that their identities are threatened in a new setting. As others report (Speller *et al.* 2002), disruption to place identity causes feelings of alienation, nostalgia, disorientation, and dislocation. Many lower level employees can often not see the benefits of the new physical environment and its associated work practices. Many of these employees want to resist change to the organisation, department, team structures, and work practices (Rooney *et al.* 2010:64).

Place identity research suggests that social definitions of settings consist of norms, behaviours, and rules inherent in the use of particular places (Proshansky *et al.* 1983). Taken in this light, scripts, or logics for different settings are tied to the social and cultural existence of a group. These scripts express an individual's or group's valued activities, interpersonal relationships, and individual and group role functions in a place (Ford & Ford 1994; Twigger-Ross & Uzzell 1996). According to Rooney *et al.* (2010:64), these scripts are different across a range of organisational levels and inform differences in evaluations of changes to a place. People from different status levels come to know about or make sense of their changing places differently, and managers need to discover and understand these scripts.

These insights have the potential to add to explanations of employee resistance to change. Place identity research suggests that people choose environments congruent with their self-concepts and that they move to find places that are more congruent with their sense of self (Twigger-Ross &

Uzzell 1996). Conversely, people tend to choose to remain in places that provide a sense of continuity. Such choice is not always available to people in organisational settings. People at lower levels of the organisation, according to Rooney *et al.* (2010:65) feel this lack of choice most keenly, and groups with the keenest awareness of history feel the strongest sense of loss of continuity. Place also provides an emotional anchor that supports the development of a sense of belonging, which assists in managing feelings and developing a sense of well-being. This sense is undermined when continuity is disrupted. According to Gieryn (2000), place also sustains hierarchy by routinising daily life in ways that exclude and segregate categories of people. Segregation via the architecture of built places contributes to subordination and control of individuals and groups. The impact of change on lower level employees is often greater than for other groups, and their levels of dissatisfaction with the change are higher. These employees have to adjust not only to changes to the nature of their work and working relationships but also to major change in the built environment. Over a long period, the workplace had provided experiences that established a strong sense of continuity and belonging in its long-term workers. Prior research shows that a place provides material resources and roles that support a sense of task-related self-efficacy, which is partly based on the accumulated experience of people in a place (Moser, Ratiu & Fleury-Bahi 2002; Pretty *et al.* 2003). Changes at the workplace often present a major challenge to many employees' sense of self-efficacy and belief systems about the management and care of clients.

Place is important in shaping perceptions of change, and place identity helps to shape temporal orientation and geoconceptual reach, leading to positive or negative evaluations of change. Furthermore, commensurate with its symbolic expression, Larson and Pepper (2003) propose that identification is influenced by culture, communication, and knowledge processes. Different modes of identification lead to different processes of sense-making about change. In other words, different place identifications lead to multiple situated organisational knowledges in a single location about a single topic. Thus,

lower level employees systematically create knowledge, but the foundation of their epistemologies is in direct, a posteriori, local experience (history) at the site (Rooney *et al.* 2010:65). Lower level employees have a temporal orientation that values the past and is worried about the future. However, higher-level groups are more a priori and not so bound to site-specific experience for analysing the efficacy of change. In other words, these individuals are less dependent on the specific place for identity purposes (Jorgensen & Stedman 2001), and their positive temporal evaluations are more future orientated. Senior managers and externals are often experienced as being more positive about breaking continuity with the past; the link between their ideal of what the organisation should become and a long history of working at the organisation was found missing in this study (Rooney *et al.* 2010:65-66).

Knowledge structures can influence group level changes, and any shifting of the relationship between identity-based knowledge structures within an organisation can influence change. This is particularly the case if there are conflicts between proponents of new and old knowledge structures (Kuhn & Corman 2003).

According to Rooney *et al.* (2010:66) high status groups depend less on a definable, physical place to understand how the institution could function now and in the future. Use of abstract knowledge (theorisations), a future orientation, and a more global geoconceptual reach are key characteristics of the senior groups. As a result, they are more positive about the future and conscious of a larger political economy that includes general welfare issues, an ideology of self-help and deinstitutionalisation, and management theory.

Individuals that form part of high status groups are more likely to feel positive about, and less threatened by change (Terry *et al.* 2001). Externals, senior managers, and middle managers are more positive about change than lower status groups. High-level groups do not see change at the institution as a threat to their self-efficacy or sense of self. They do not draw their most important professional identity resources from the particular work site but from many places. They actively reach beyond their immediate geographical

situation to learn and generalise about how to manage change. High-level groups draw their conceptual frameworks about managing change from a wider geography and experience. Significantly, they draw resources from their communities of practice and professional identities. Thus, when they make evaluations and truth claims about the change, they are less constrained by local constructs and more concerned about state, national, and international issues (compare Pretty *et al.* 2003).

3.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter the contemporary organisation as context within which change interventions take place, was explored. In order to survive in an ever changing environment, the contemporary organisation is required to be a constantly learning organisation that is able to adapt to new circumstances and constantly change in order to deal with the demands placed on it. A learning organisation that facilitates the learning of all its members and continually transforms itself is able to reflect new knowledge and insights.

As reflected in this chapter, an organisation is regarded as a complex set of systems and sub-systems that interact with each other within an existing environment. Four different dimensions of a contemporary organisation, namely the environmental dimension, the organisational dimension, the interpersonal dimension and the intrapersonal dimension are discussed. As communication is seen as the life-blood of an organisation, the important role that communication plays in any organised endeavour is emphasised. The integration of the communication activities under an umbrella strategy is essential as this contributes towards a strong corporate culture. Organisational culture should be the first area that is addressed when a change intervention is undertaken.

In the next chapter the effective management of change communication is addressed.

CHAPTER 4

EFFECTIVE CHANGE MANAGEMENT COMMUNICATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Change management has been defined as “the process of continually renewing an organisation’s direction, structure, and capabilities to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customers” (Moran & Brightman 2001:111). Change, according to Burnes (2004) is an ever present feature of organisational life, both at an operational and strategic level. As such, change is a function of strategic corporate communication. Van Deventer (2005:14) defines strategic corporate communication as a pro-active management process whereby communication activities in the institution are integrated, planned and executed to address strategic issues in supporting the realisation of the institution’s vision, mission, goals and objectives.

The implementation of change is a complex process that is often unsuccessful, mainly as a result of poor communication or an underestimation of the amount of retraining required (Price & Chahal 2006:237). The importance of communication and collaboration cannot be highlighted enough according to Semeltzer (1991) as cited in Richardson and Denton (1996:203). Semeltzer (1991) also found that the most commonly cited reason for failure of a change effort was the presence of inaccurate and negative rumors and states that the direct cause of these rumors was often management’s inability to provide timely and accurate information to staff members. The biggest reason for failure of change efforts was due to employees’ learning of the change from outsiders. The study of organisational communication and the role of internal communication, as discussed in chapter three (see 3.3.2) therefore become extremely important when organisations have to change.

Communicating change is a difficult task. Failure, as already stated, is more than often due primarily because of poor communication and a lack of acceptance by employees. Grobler and Puth (2002:2) point out that two of

the main reasons for both the public and private sector's inability to effectively manage change are, (1) the importance of communication is either totally ignored, or (2) communication is only viewed as a tool to bring about change (that is, communication on technical level). Puth (2002:112) states that the bottom line for a good employee-leader relationship is communication. The role that communication plays in explaining the process of change, serves as a powerful agent of change in its own right. Communication is therefore vital to the implementation of organisational change (Lewis 1999:44).

As this chapter's focus is on addressing the conceptual research question, the rest of this chapter will be employed to highlight amongst other issues, the essence of the change phenomenon, and to explore change communication and deliberate on the role and value of leadership communication during change.

4.2 THE EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE

Communication of organisational change poses challenges for managers (Lewis 1999), and identity and epistemic differences only exacerbate this problem. As differences in perceptions and knowledge in various groups change, managers need to increase their understanding of the impact of perceived threats to place and social identities (see 3.5.1). Managers caught in closed discourses develop a bias toward their own ideas about change and exclude other views, which in turn inhibit the effectiveness of their change management processes (Zorn, Page & Cheney 2000). Rooney *et al.* (2010:68) suggest that senior managers are theorists and have to deal with the same communication problems that academic theorists face in explaining their ideas to a wider audience. There is thus a need for managers to consider multiple perspectives and in doing so to develop higher levels of empathy toward members of other groups (Rooney & McKenna 2008; Zorn *et al.* 2000).

4.2.1 Perspectives and theoretical frameworks of change

Palmer and Dunford (2008:20) are of opinion that one of the greatest challenges facing organisational change researchers is the diversity of theoretical perspectives and prescriptive frameworks within the field. Researchers are confronted with a plethora of views from organisational development to processual theory, from sensemaking to contingency models, from prescriptive multi-step models to perspectives derived from complexity theory and chaos theory. To address the diversity issue, various writers have sought to provide a way forward by presenting their reading of the organisational change field. Some of their views are briefly mentioned. For Clegg and Walsh (2004) the management of change is characterised as having a 'dominant mindset' that should be replaced by a 'proposed new mindset'. They present a series of couplets that contrast dominant and proposed new mindsets. For example, the dominant change process is described as 'fragmented' when (in their view) it should be 'continuous'; as 'push-based' when it should be 'pull-based'; and as focusing on technology rather than taking a systems design perspective. Palmer and Dunford (2008:20-21) opine that a second approach to addressing the diversity issue is to eschew prescription and instead target what are seen as the managerialist assumptions underpinning the change literature. Sturdy and Grey (2003:653) view the elements that differentiate the diverse approaches as less significant than the underlying assumptions that characterise the field. In their view, the field of organisational change is characterised by an uncritical pro-change bias that demonises resistance to change; an assumption that change 'can, should and must be managed' and an assumption that it is unnecessary to focus on the broader social consequences of change programmes. Collins (2003) provides a very similar characterisation of the field of organisational change by arguing that it ignores the social and political consequences of change. A third approach is to propose 'key issues' to which greater attention should be paid. For example, Pettigrew, Woodman and Cameron (2001) argue that the organisational change literature has paid insufficient attention to the study of (i) context, (ii)

time, history, process and action, (iii) the link between change processes and performance, (iv) international comparisons, (v) receptivity, customisation, sequencing, pace, episodic versus continuous change and (vi) engagement between scholars and practitioners (of organisational change). A fourth approach is to 'map' the field of organisational change by identifying the ontological and/or epistemological assumptions underlying various approaches. For Van de Ven and Poole (2005) the ontological issue is whether organisations are treated as 'things' or 'processes', i.e. whether the focus is a structural entity, 'the organisation', or the process, 'organising'. This approach echoes Weick's (1979) classic argument about the primacy of 'organising' over 'organisation'. Tsoukas and Chia (2002:570) insist that 'organisation must be understood as an emergent property of change . . . [that is,] change is ontologically prior to organisation'. For Van de Ven and Poole (2005) the epistemological issue is about how organisational change is studied. They offer two options. One option is to assume that knowledge is attained through 'variance methods', which look for deterministic explanations, understood as a relationship between dependent and independent variables. The second option is to use 'process methods' which 'employ eclectic designs that identify or reconstruct the [change] process through direct observation, archival analysis, or multiple case studies' (Van de Ven & Poole 2005:1384). Weick and Quinn (1999) also focus on ontology. Their approach considers whether change is episodic or continuous. Although the notion of 'managing change' may appear relatively unambiguous, this is a misperception due to the diversity of ontological assumptions underlying both the notion of 'managing' and that of 'change'.

Two competing assumptions that constitute managing (management as control versus management as shaping) and three competing assumptions about change outcomes (outcomes as intended, partially intended or unintended) are identified. The combination of these assumptions leads to one of six different images of managing organisational change: directing, navigating, caretaking, coaching, interpreting and nurturing (see table 4.1). Welch and Quinn (1999) describe the underlying assumptions associated with

each image and identify associated organisation and change theories. Differing ontological assumptions about managing and change outcomes that relate to different actions and research agendas are identified by them. To illustrate how the images are applied, Palmer and Dunford (2008:21) focus on three elements commonly involved in managing organisational change: vision, communication and resistance. In this study the focus is on the communication element. Research propositions that link each of these elements (via the different images) to underlying ontological assumptions are identified. Two assumptions about managing are identified and discussed. One assumption conceives managing as an act to control outcomes; the other conceives managing as an act to shape outcomes (Palmer & Dunford 2008:21-22).

Assumptions about change	Assumptions about managing outcomes	
	Controlling	Shaping
Intended	Directing	Coaching
Partially intended	Navigating	Interpreting
Unintended	Caretaking	Nurturing

Table 4.1: Images of managing change (Adapted from Palmer and Dunford 2008:22)

Management as control has been dominant throughout the history of management thought (Fayol 1949). Management as control is associated with a top-down, hierarchical view of managing. Management as shaping sees managing as influencing rather than determining outcomes by edict. The emphasis on shaping as a way of managing anthropomorphises the organisation giving it qualities of an organism rather than a machine (Palmer & Dunford 2008:22).

As already stated, three assumptions about the nature of change outcomes receive attention here: (1) intended change outcomes, which refers to situations where it is believed that proposed change outcomes are achievable. When outcomes are planned, change is treated as the realisation of prior intent achieved through the actions of change managers; (2) Partially intended change outcomes, that refer to situations where some, but not all, change intentions are achievable and; (3) unintended change outcomes which suggests that managers often have great difficulty in achieving proposed change outcomes because a variety of forces lead to unplanned change outcomes.

The images of managing change: directing, navigating, caretaking, coaching, interpreting, and nurturing as described by Palmer and Dunford (2008:22) are outlined by these authors according to application of the six images to three phenomena/concepts: vision, communication and resistance to change. These three concepts have been selected because of their ubiquitous nature within the literature that comprises the discourse on organisational change. As mentioned, only the concept of communication will be explored in this study.

In the *directing image*, management is in control, and intended change outcomes are achievable. The change manager directs the organisation in particular ways to produce the required change. Theories applicable here are “N-step” (e.g. Kotter, 1995) and contingency theories of change (Stace & Dunphy 2001). These theories assume that the manager is directing. Certain steps that change managers should use to implement the change are also prescribed. Palmer and Dunford (2008:25) perceive the *directing* image of communication as focussing on clarity of communication by asking “the why, what, who, how, and when questions” (Axley 2000), and highlighting the change’s value-agenda (Guaspari 1996). When associated with a contingency perspective, modification of the type of information provided and the leadership style to “fit” the type of change involved, as well as the organisational level at which the change message is pitched may be required (Stace & Dunphy 2001). Sending clear unambiguous messages about the

need for change is important. Communication strategies need to ensure that there is no message overload or message distortion (Clampitt, DeKoch & Cushman 2000; Nelson & Coxhead 1997).

Control is still at the heart of management action in the *navigating* image, but a variety of factors external to managers, suggest that while they may achieve some intended change outcomes, others will occur over which they have little control. Outcomes are partly emergent rather than completely planned, and result from a variety of influences, competing interests and processes (Palmer & Dunford 2008:22). The contextualist or processual theories of change associated with writers such as Dawson (1994) and Pettigrew and Whipp (1993) rely upon the navigator image. The assumption here is that “change should not be and cannot be solidified, or seen as a series of linear events within a given period of time; instead it is viewed as a continuous process”(Burnes 1996:187) in which change managers have no guarantee that the final destination will be one initially envisaged (Palmer & Dunford 2008:23). For the *navigating* image, communication involves paying attention to differing interests and stakeholders. A variety of communication strategies such as “tell and sell” (see 4.3.1) to try and win people over to the change are employed (Clampitt, DeKoch & Kushman 2000). Critical listening skills, including evaluating messages, are needed to be receptive to issues that may impact on the proposed change and to make informed judgements about issues (Wolvin & Coakley 1996). Providing persuasive accounts of the need for change, along with enhanced negotiation skills, are required to win over key stakeholders. This may involve persuasion through deals, including ‘selling’ change upwards and downwards throughout the organisation (Dutton *et al.* 2001, in Palmer & Dunford 2008:25).

Palmer and Dunford (2008:23) explain that managers still exercise some control in the *caretaking* image, but the ability to control is severely constrained by a variety of forces, both internal and external. These forces propel change relatively independent of a manager’s intentions. At best, change managers are caretakers having little influence over the direction of change. Lifecycle theory views organisations as passing through well-defined

stages from birth to growth, maturity and then decline or death. Van de Ven and Poole (1995) is of opinion that these stages are part of the natural developmental cycle of organisations, and are independent of a manager's control. Palmer and Dunford (2008:25) continue that a reactive communication strategy is most suitable and aligned with the caretaking image (see 4.2.1). The reactive strategy uses an 'identify and reply' approach (Clampitt, DeKoch & Cushman 2000). Forces for change are identified and employee's requests for knowledge of the change are 'replied' to by explaining the inevitability of the change due to external forces. Discriminative and therapeutic listening skills (Wolvin & Coakley 1996) are needed to determine how people are responding to the change process, and to help counsel and assist them through the change.

In the *coaching* image managers shape an organisation's capabilities in a particular way by building the right set of values, skills and "drills" that are deemed necessary for organisational members to achieve the desired organisational outcomes. Traditional organisational theory reinforces this image. The assumption here is that to coach is to build capability (French & Bell 1995:4). The communication component for the coaching image involves modelling consistency in actions and words. Where directing focuses on "getting the word out" about the change, coaching is about "getting buy-in" to the change through shared values and "positive emotions" (Guaspari 1996). Team based rather than top-down, CEO-led communication styles are most favoured (cf. Duck 1993) as these enhance people's willingness to be involved in the change. Use of "underscore and explore" interactions (Clampitt, DeKoch & Cushman 2000) are employed in dialogue about the change. Creating a shared meaning and common language and discourse ensures that people are not talking past each other about what is meant by the change (Heracleous & Barrett 2001). From this perspective it is important to pay attention to the emotional side of change as it is a key determinant of whether or not people willingly participate in the change process (Fox & Amichai-Hamburger 2001, in Palmer & Dunford 2008:26).

In the *interpreting* image, the change manager creates meaning for other organisational members, helping them to make sense of various organisational actions and events. Barge and Oliver (2003:138-139) state that managers as interpreters “need to be able to provide legitimate arguments and reasons why their actions fit within the situation and should be viewed as legitimate” Weick’s (2000) sensemaking theory of organisational change (see 4.4.3) represents an interpreting image of change. By providing meaning and “connecting the dots,” the change manager as interpreter helps make sense of the events. The manager however is not hegemonic. Individuals in organisations are “sensemakers”, not just “sense-takers”, and are integrally involved in determining the outcomes of strategic change initiatives (Palmer & Dunford 2008:23). For the interpreting image, communicating means being aware of multiple sensemaking about a proposed change by groups inside and outside the organisation. The focus in managing change is on sensegiving to different groups, or presenting the most persuasive account of the change to ensure that as many people as possible, inside and outside the organisation, share a common understanding. Interpreters recognise ‘[t]he power of conversation, dialogue, and respectful interaction to reshape ongoing change’ (Weick 2000:237).

Communication, and language more specifically, is central not just to conveying or transmitting required changes; it is the medium through which change itself occurs. As Barrett, Thomas and Hocevar (1995:366) point out, through changing organisational language and discourse new possibilities and actions emerge, as change occurs ‘when a new way of talking replaces an old way of talking’. It is in and through everyday conversations in organisations that change occurs, as people try out new ways of talking and acting and discard old ways (Barrett, Thomas & Hocevar 1995). Interpreting change involves assessing the appropriateness of people’s images of change, and identifying the range of communication skills available to establish new ways of talking throughout the organisation (cf. Marshak 1993). As outlined by Dervitsiotis (2002:1088), strategic change skills require ‘conversations-for-action as opposed to idle talk (Palmer & Dunford 2008:260).

The *nurturing* image states that, even small changes may have a large impact on organisations, and managers are not able to control the outcomes of these changes (Thietart & Forgues 1995). Managers may however, nurture their organisations, facilitating organisational qualities which enable positive self-organisation to occur. The ability to produce intended outcomes is severely limited because of the impact of the much wider, sometimes chaotic forces and influences. Chaos theory (discussed at 4.2.2.2) assumes that the change manager nurtures the capacity for self-organisation, but has very little ability to influence the spontaneous new orders which may emerge (Lichtenstein 2000, in Palmer & Dunford 2008:24). Communication, for the nurturing image, involves fostering the conditions for change and communicating the need to be ready to engage in change as the situation emerges, often in unpredictable ways. Communicating the positive aspects of the process is important so staff members see and realise new possibilities that may have been previously unanticipated. Discriminative and therapeutic listening skills (Wolvin & Coakley 1996) are designed to pay attention to new possibilities (discriminative) as well as assist staff members who have problems engaging with the new circumstances (therapeutic) (Palmer & Dunford 2008:26).

Against the background of the different perspectives of organisational change, the different ways in which change management can be approached will be explored in the next section.

4.2.2 Approaches to change management

Studies that focus on change communication can be categorised as either belonging to the instrumental perspective or the constructivist perspective of communication. Typical of instrumental studies are those that recognise change communication as an instrument to manage change (Frahm & Brown 2005:1). In contrast, the constructivist perspective, as discussed in chapter one (see 1.8.2) contends that organisational communication is the context in which organisational change occurs and that the change process unfolds through a dynamic interplay of conversation. In essence the conversations

create and construct organisational change (Ford & Ford 1995, in Frahm & Brown 2005:2).

4.2.2.1 *Traditional approach to change management*

The more traditional and planned approach to change management, representing a variety of models of which most from the practice of organisational development (OD), is a planned approach to change management.

The three most important models of the planned or OD cadre of change are firstly, the action research model, that was designed to address social and organisational issues and involves a collective approach where all parties involved participate in the formulation of research problems as well as the action taken to solve these problems. Here, the change process becomes a learning process as it is a rational systematic analysis of issues through social action. Secondly, the three-step model that proposes that change should involve three steps namely, 'unfreezing', 'moving' and 'refreezing', which means that old behaviour has to be discarded before new ways can be adopted successfully and thirdly, the model of planned change which consists of change phases (distinct states an organisation moves through), and change processes (methods to move the organisation through these states) that is an elaboration of the above. This model concentrated mostly on structural changes. Specific characteristics of the planned approach (OD) is that it places emphasis on processes; deals with change over a significant period of time; follows a holistic approach; encourages participation; ensures full support from top management; and involves a facilitator who takes on the role of agent (Stroh & Jaatinen 2001:151).

These models are however too rigid and phases cannot be so distinct and chronologically ordered because of the extreme turbulence in the environment. The emphasis is on incremental and isolated change rather than on radical transformation. The reliance on management is too heavy

and what is implied here is that one kind of change can work for all organisations (Stroh & Jaatinen 2001:151).

In terms of communication, the traditional view of management is that information is “power” and that it has to be controlled and ‘fed’ to employees in little doses. What this worldview implies is that structures are the determinants of the information needed and that perceptions must be managed by feeding the “right” information and withholding information that would lead to disorder and chaos (Stroh & Jaatinen 2001:152). The most commonly used approaches to implementing planned organisational change are the programmatic approaches.

4.2.2.1.1 Programmatic change communication flowing from the traditional approach to change management

Programmatic change approaches focus on top-down dissemination of information. Employees are told about the change in such a way as to sell them on why they should be committed to implementing it (Russ 2008:200). These approaches are focused on “telling and selling”. A key component of programmatic approaches is the downward cascade of information about the change, such as the transmission of new policies, procedures, knowledge or facts about the change process, and directives for how the change should be implemented on the organisation’s frontlines. The logic behind this perspective is that the “right” message communicated using the “right” approach may diminish or circumvent implementation challenges. To minimise employees’ resistance, compliance is often sought from organisational stakeholders who have a stake in the operational execution of the implementation of the planned change. From the implementers’ perspective, compliance is perceived as essential to preventing obstacles and achieving the desired vision of successful change implementation (Armenakis & Harris 2002, in Russ 2008:201).

Fairhurst (1993:334) describes programmatic-based change campaigns as planned, organised efforts to mould corporate images, manage issues, and

articulate values. In this sense, programmatic approaches emphasise the cognitive aspects of change implementation efforts.

According to Russ (2008:201) communication models that fall under the programmatic rubric share common characteristics, as they utilise highly centralised, controlled, and prescribed communication approaches towards change implementation. As a top-down approach is regarded as the best way to implement change, there is little to no organisational participation. Most, if not all, control is held by a few decision makers, usually at the top of the hierarchy. Further, little to no power or influence is held by frontline employees, even those who may have some expertise in the areas impacted by the change (e.g. subject-matter experts). When these implementation models are used, organisational leaders essentially delegate what is to change and how that change process should occur. The information received from the data received during this study, suggested that this was the approach followed by the UFS management during the integration of the residences.

Fairhurst *et al.* (1997, in Russ 2008:202) demonstrate that, because the success of programmatic implementation approaches rests on what change messages are communicated, the strategy of 'framing' can be of particular relevance. This technique emphasises the use of linguistics and the management of meaning to successfully diffuse change downward in organisations where managers sell and spread the word of change by providing information to help their employees make sense of the organisational leaders' vision for the change. Another strategy relevant to the success of programmatic implementation approaches involves targeting the right audience to receive the carefully crafted messages about the planned change. To this end, implementers may choose to use an 'equal dissemination' (Lewis *et al.* 2006) strategy by canvassing all levels of an organisation, exhibiting a type of blanket-style strategy to disseminate updated and detailed information on all matters about the planned change throughout the entire process. Previous research has found that implementers use this strategy to minimise complaints from employees who

decreased post-implementation, that they did not receive enough information about the change. Conversely, implementers may choose to use the 'need to know' strategy, which reflects a selective communication philosophy and audience analysis technique whereby messages are carefully chosen, edited, and adapted to appeal to the unique backgrounds and interests of diverse stakeholders. Since different stakeholders are likely to have different needs, implementers can highlight certain elements of change that are most salient and persuasive for each group. In other words, implementers can 'frame' how stakeholders perceive planned change. This strategy may be used to forestall some critics' objections and/or to avoid overburdening employees with unnecessary information about the change process (Russ 2008:202).

Anticipated limitations to their use are that these approaches are deemed less effective for implementing change than participatory approaches (Lewis 1999, in Russ 2008:202). Two core limitations associated with using programmatic implementation approaches are identified. First, organisational change is not a one-way communication process; yet, programmatic approaches often perpetuate the obsolete model of conduit-like communication, suggesting that a message sent is identical to the one received (Shannon & Weaver 1949, in Russ 2008:203). This one-way model has however long been refuted by communication scholars who have emphasised this approach's neglect of negotiated meaning construction (Berger & Luckman 1966). Other limitations include limiting interaction and participation between organisational levels, causing an abundance of unnecessary information, and disengaging stakeholders because the information is given in a downward, didactic way. This may also cause employees to become resentful or even resistant to the planned change, which may cause employees to distance themselves from the organisation by expressing dissent. The abovementioned factors bring to mind the question of whether this approach can assist employees in learning how to implement long-term organisational change or whether they simply elicit short-term compliance. Another very negative aspect is the fact that excessive downward communication may cause stakeholders to become flooded with information which may potentially lead to greater anxiety,

confusion, uncertainty, and resistance about the organisational change effort (Russ 2008:203).

Benefits attributed to programmatic implementation approaches include that disseminating formal, quality information from organisational leadership is an important variable during planned change efforts. Fidler and Johnson (1984, in Russ 2008:203) maintain that employees' ultimate acceptance of an innovation often rests on the extent to which communication can act to reduce uncertainty and complexity (Russ 2008:203). The way in which leaders communicate change can decrease uncertainty and increase understanding about the change, as well as reduce anxiety and negative feelings.

4.2.2.2 *Modern approaches to change management*

Modern approaches to change management focus on more freedom, less control and a more organic, holistic and ecological organisation. Youngblood, (in Stroh & Jaatinen 2001:152) is of opinion that "Living systems operate in complex environments where centralised control would be a one-way ticket to extinction". Organisations that operate like living systems are more open, flexible, creative and balanced, and respond more to the changes in the environment. These organisations are also more caring and strive toward healthy relationships with groups which could be influenced by the organisation (Stroh & Jaatinen 2001:152). Change management strategies are directly influenced by strategic management developments and emerging principles of strategic management. The three emergent approaches that particularly connect to change management are: Postmodernism and complexity, the chaos approach, and the contingency approach. These approaches will now be explored briefly.

Postmodernism implies that different groups within society take on different perspectives of reality and truth, each trying to make sense of their environment in order to achieve their goals and make sense of what they perceive and experience. These views cannot be unified or conformed as they are created out of the unique experiences or circumstances of each

group. Postmodernism is characterised by the co-existence of different discourses and paradoxes but with the important distinction of being part of a complex set of relationships and interlinked networks. Postmodernists argue that power is spread throughout systems in society and it should be challenged, thereby inherently causing transformation. Postmodern public relations should play an important part in empowering marginalised groups by involving all stakeholders. A strategic and holistic view of public relations is stressed by post modernists and discourse and critical approach are promulgated (Stroh & Jaatinen 2001:154).

Complexity refers to the fact that there are more possibilities in a system than can be actualised (Stroh & Jaatinen 2001:153). The interaction of all the subsystems of a complex system and the role of the relationships formed, as well as the creation of information and knowledge through these interactions, form the basis of the complexity approach. The complexity theory postulates that systems have patterns and models if viewed from a distance and over time.

Chaos theory started out with the basic principles of the systems theory and grew into what is summarised by Overman (in Stroh & Jaatinen 2001:154) as “the study of complex, dynamic systems that reveal patterns of order out of seemingly chaotic behaviours...the study of complex, deterministic, non-linear, dynamic systems...so complex and so dynamic, in fact as to appear chaotic”. Chaos is “the final state in a system’s movement away from order”. It can be understood as the state where the system can no longer sustain a stable pattern of behaviour because if increasingly changing environment and subsequently leads to the system reorganising itself to adjust to these changes. Chaos theory attempts to understand why systems seem not to function in linear, predictable, conventional ways, but studied from a distance display patterns and structures.

According to Stroh and Jaatinen (2001:155) organisations can adapt, renew, maintain and grow through self-organisation brought about by chaos. The contribution of the chaos theory to management lies in the appreciation of change, chaos and uncertainty and not in the distrust and need to control

disorder. It also lies in the appreciation of the faith in the self-organising nature of chaos. A very important contribution of the chaos approach relevant to this study is the participatory nature of the new approaches to change management. As there is interdependence between different sub-systems in an organisation all the subsystems should take part in the processes of the system. Participation could add to the richness of information, shared responsibility, more trust and transparency, and ultimately to healthier relationships. This interdependency and participation in turn imply relationships, the sharing in decision making, as well as in the dissemination and interpretation of information throughout the organisation (Stroh & Jaatinen 2001:155). The ability to change an organisation will lie in the challenges of relationship management, and not in changing the structures or functions of individuals. Communication strengthens the connections between entities of a system.

Stroh and Jaatinen (2001:157) opine that the contingency approach was developed as a view seeking to understand interrelationships among sub-systems and supra-systems and to define patterns of relationships between key variables. It is directed toward understanding how organisations act under varying conditions and which actions would be the most appropriate for specific situations. A key management function according to this theory is the development of congruence between an organisation and its subsystems and environment as this leads to greater effectiveness, efficiency and satisfaction.

The most recent publication in relation to Jaatinen's research holds that communication is a system of communicative interactions between different levels of a system, which ideally, is seeking a resolution of conflicts between an organisation and its stakeholders. It can be derived from this theory that management has to take change or need for change into account and align different levels of a system with each other to improve effectiveness, efficiency and satisfaction (Stroh & Jaatinen 2001:158).

4.2.2.2.1 Participatory change communication flowing from the modern approach to change management

In contrast to programmatic efforts, participatory change communication invites input, using involving and empowering methods to gain the insights of various stakeholders to shape the change programme and not merely to “receive it”. Although participatory approaches make up the largest category of extant research, they are used less frequently than programmatic approaches (Russ 2008:204). Stakeholders are made part of the change process by soliciting their input (e.g. perceptions, suggestions, proposals and appraisals) about the change (Lines 2007). Participatory approaches are grounded in the basic assumption that employees should be active participants in the change process. This approach is not necessarily about the basic act of participation, but is about whether employees, in the end, have a voice during planned organisational change. The logic driving this approach is employees’ participation being perceived as the catalyst for implementing sustained organisational change (Lines 2004, in Russ 2008:204). Russ (*ibid*) continues that the participatory approach necessitates more dialogic communication tactics whereby input is gathered and used to shape the change, the organisation, and the constituents (users/stakeholders). The objective is to build consensus and rally support for the change as well as to allow affected stakeholders to make improvements they feel are needed to ensure the successful implementation of the change. Stakeholders are therefore engaged in the process and invited to actively participate in the shaping, construction, and implementation of organisational change.

Participatory change processes are often grounded in the theoretical traditions of democratic work spaces. In a democratic workplace, change becomes the imperative that the whole organisation is talking about and that everyone in the organisation is expected to participate in. All employees are being asked to see themselves as entrepreneurs at the level of their jobs (Russ 2008:205).

Communication models in participatory management are characterised by varying levels of involvement and input from stakeholders from all organisational levels. Participation is not reserved for individuals in the company's upper echelons. Change is also not treated as a static event, but rather perceived as a dynamic process which is deemed most effective when employees flex and adapt to events and decisions as they unfold. As such, decisions are often made autonomously by an organisation's lower echelons on how (and sometimes if) to implement the change. In other cases, the bottom, middle, and/or top layers of an organisation collaborate on how to best implement change (Russ 2008:205).

The core objective of participatory communication activities is to build consensus among relevant stakeholders by fostering their involvement and soliciting their ideas and input. Multiple channels can be used with which to achieve this objective. The nature of these channels ranges from the very formal to the very informal. Input and feedback can be obtained via multiple communication channels, and verbal (large or small groups, interpersonal communication) and non-verbal (written) feedback (Russ 2008:205).

The multidirectional nature of participatory approaches offers the potential to create a sense of dialogic communication in organisations where change messages flow up, down, and sideways. Although seemingly versatile in nature, current research suggests that implementers typically do not use participatory communication activities to solicit input from staff. Those that are used are informal in nature, including casual discussions with employees, informally checking in with staff supervisors, as well as receiving unsolicited complaints and praise about the change (Lewis 1999, in Russ 2008:205-206). Furthermore, employees take a personal risk and invest a great deal when sharing their views on organisational change. Only genuine calls for participation that actually value stakeholders' input have the possibility of bringing about successful organisational change (Cotton 1993, in Russ 2008:207).

4.2.3 Different types of change

When characterised by how the change comes about, there are several different approaches. The two types most dominant in the literature however, are planned change and emergent change. Burke (2008:21) differentiates between the following types of change, namely, revolutionary versus evolutionary; discontinuous versus continuous; episodic versus continuous flow; transformational versus transactional; strategic versus operational and total system versus local option change. The business environment that the organisation operates in determines whether change is **continuous** or **discontinuous**. The contrast between **episodic** and **continuous change** can be described by looking at properties suggested by Dunphy (1996) that are generally found in any comprehensive theory of change. Three of these properties that are especially relevant to the analysis of change in an organisation are the nature of the organisation, the analytical framework to understand the organisational change process, and thirdly the role played by the change agent (Munduate & Bennebroek Gravenhorst 2003:2-3). Another aspect added by Weick and Quinn (1999:362) refers to the **individual change** that occurs at the **micro-level**, requiring an acceptance at an emotional level of the inevitability of change, and enabling an alteration of meaning structures at the cognitive level. This change type is evident at the interpersonal and intrapersonal dimensions.

In recent times, many authors have presented descriptions of evolutionary and revolutionary change with the overarching perspective of organisational change being referred to as **punctuated equilibrium change** (Van Tonder 2010:103-104). Originating from the field of evolutionary biology, the punctuated equilibrium theory of organisational change (Eldredge & Gould 1972; Gould 1989; Gould & Eldredge 1977) argues that the organisation experiences long periods of relatively stable, gradual and evolutionary change that are interrupted or “punctuated” by brief periods of discontinuous, rapid and revolutionary change (Tushman *et al.* 1986). The organisation finds itself in a position of equilibrium characterised by incremental adjustments or changes in response to environmental demands, but at certain points in time

this equilibrium is punctuated by its brief, intense cataclysmic change processes. During the short periods of discontinuity an organisation's survival may depend on its ability to transform itself (Hayes 2007:12).

Nadler and Tushman (1989) introduced the concepts of **tuning, adaptation, reorientation** (also referred to as frame-bending change) and **re-creation** (also referred to as frame-breaking change). Tuning and adaptation are being described as evolutionary change types (see 4.2.3.2). The primary value of this change typology is that it is anchored in some form of systems theory that provides context and brings a dynamic logic to our understanding of organisational change. Re-orientation or "frame-bending changes" are major changes that will fundamentally affect the organisation, but not in a manner that will break the past; continuity is maintained. Recreation or "frame breaking changes" are significant in terms of scope in that they affect core attributes of the organisation, typically in response to environmental circumstances that threaten the existence of the organisation (Van Tonder 2010:94).

In the following section the difference between the types of change will be explored in more detail.

4.2.3.1 *Revolutionary change*

Revolutionary change, also referred to as **episodic, discontinuous, transformational** or **radical change** is dramatic and can alter the nature of whole industries and economies beyond recognition (Kitchen & Daly 2002:47). Episodic or discontinuous change occurs during periods of divergence when organisations are moving away from their equilibrium conditions and when there is "a growing misalignment between an inertial deep structure and perceived environmental demands (Weick and Quinn 1999:365). Change management means changing the very nature of the organisation and the way in which they do business (Murdoch 1997, in Kitchen & Daly 2002:48). This type of change is referred to as episodic because it tends to occur in distinct periods during which shifts are

precipitated by external events such as technology change or internal events such as change in key personnel (Weick & Quinn 1999:365). Large environmental changes since the 1970's have led to large scale organisational transitions. In chapter three (see 3.2) the environmental dimension of organisations was explored.

Revolutionary or transformational change occurs when a break with the past patterns of change occurs and involves a break with the past patterns of change and development. It is based on new relationships and dynamics within the industry that may undermine core competencies, and question the very purpose of the enterprise. Here the focus is on doing things differently, rather than on doing things better (Hayes 2007:12-13). This type of change is also initiated at higher levels in the organisation (Mintzberg & Westley 1992, in Weick & Quinn 1999:368).

4.2.3.2 Evolutionary change

This type of change is also referred to as **incremental** or **continuous** change. A key feature of incremental change is that it builds on what has already been established and stands for continuous improvement (Dessler 1995:502). Organisational change experts, Nadler and Tushman (1989) state that organisations experience change all the time, but that the nature, scope, and intensity of such changes vary considerably. Incremental change is associated with the periods when the industry is in equilibrium and the focus for change is "doing things better through a process of continuous tinkering, adaptation and modification". According to Dunphy and Stace (1988:318) incremental change is a planned, orderly transition. Nadler and Tushman (1989:196) continue that incremental changes are not necessarily small changes. They can be large in terms of both the resources needed and the impact on people. Two different types of incremental change are identified by them. They refer to tuning and adaptation. **Tuning** is described as being pre-emptive or anticipatory, while **adaptation** is seen as reactive in response to external events. Neither involves fundamental change. Tuning refers to

“within frame’ or system compatible changes of an incremental nature, is generally of a limited scope, and is initiated proactively. Adaptation refers to incremental changes in a step-by-step mode that are undertaken by the organisation in response to external events. Incremental change can be cumulative and, over time, can lead to an organisation transforming its deep structures and reinventing itself. It is however assumed according to the punctuated equilibrium paradigm that incremental change is incapable of fundamentally transforming the deep structures of an organisation. Nadler (1998, in Van Tonder 2010:83) describes incremental or continuous change as constant change, part of an orderly flow, designed to improve efficiency and/or eliminate problems. This is step by step change, where each step builds upon the previous one.

Burke (2008:69) is of opinion that more than 95% of organisational change is evolutionary. Most organisational change consists of improvements, incremental steps to fix a problem or change a part of a larger system.

4.2.3.3 *First-, second- and third-order change*

Watzlawick, Weakland and Fisch (1974:10-11) describe first- and second order change, where first order change was typically thought of as occurring within a given system which remains unaffected when these changes take place, and second order change as a changing of the system itself – change of the contextual frame.

The concept of schemata is central to the understanding of the differences between the different types of change. Various definitions of schemata exist. Dixon (1999, in Van Tonder 2010:85) refers to it as a “meaning structure”. Schemata can be viewed as a “template,” which, when overlaid on experience, will provide meaning to the experience, or a cognitive structure consisting of a network of different concepts through which a coherent structure of meaning is built up. It is at once a mechanism through which the millions of experiences that an individual engages in are interpreted and categorised, and a complex structure for recording and storing meaning,

which enables memory functions, and in particular the retrieval of knowledge stored in the long-term memory. Changing an existing schema involves placing the authority of the schema secondary to that of incoming stimuli. Over an extended period of time, change in or of schemata becomes increasingly difficult (Van Tonder 2010:85).

According to Van Tonder (2010:86), first order change refers to change that tacitly reinforces present understandings within the existing schema (e.g. improving the skills of managers in order to make them more participative in their management style). **First-order change** has typically been described as quantitative change of limited scope in one or a few dimensions. Van Tonder (2010:86) is of opinion that it is primarily a change in content in the same direction as that promoted by the existing schemata. This type of change is incremental, logical and rational, and occurs within the existing state of the organisation. As Burke (2008:123) puts it, this form of change involves what we today refer to as “continuous improvement”, that is, the change consists of alterations or modifications in existing system characteristics, such as eliminating a layer of management or administration in the organisational hierarchy, rather than a shift in some fundamental way, such as a change in the organisational mission.

Second-order change implies a conscious change to the structure of the schema itself and is therefore not constrained by boundaries of the schema- it is actually change within the boundaries of the schema. A change in the prevailing schema of management may imply a replacement of the philosophy of participative management altogether – possibly with partnership or collectively shared management philosophy when second order change is instituted. Second order change, is essentially a qualitative change, not in content but in context. This type of change tends to be multidimensional, occurs on multiple levels (individuals, groups and in all probability the whole organisation, as described in chapter 3) and will entail change in most if not all behavioural dimensions (attitudes, values, perceptions, beliefs). It is also likely to be discontinuous, breaking with the previous direction of the change or organisation. This change implies taking up a new direction and does not

proceed through incremental steps but moves forward in revolutionary jumps that are seemingly rational but in effect based on a different logic. It will result in a totally new way of thinking and acting in the organisation (Van Tonder 2010:86).

Unfortunately, as with most change typologies, the emotional component of change is not recognised- other than by a cursory reference to a different logic that underlies second-order change and is seemingly irrational. This implies that second order change will be less easily comprehended and will be likely to elicit more resistance than first order change, which is of the order of the day, and the prevailing change paradigm in most large traditional organisations. First order change, by virtue of its non-threatening nature, will be accepted with minimal resistance, but is unlikely to produce meaningful gains. Second-order change, by contrast, is intensely threatening, but will realise greater gains (or losses) than first-order change (Van Tonder 2010:86-87). When a substantial “stepping back” approach, that is supplemented by strong reflective capabilities and the ability to view and approach the schema from a different perspective, third-order change is at hand.

Third-order change may, for example, imply the unearthing of core traditions in the organisational culture and abandoning of these in favour of an alternative or desired culture. Change in such a meaning structure or schema is exceedingly difficult because of its tacit nature and the need to engage a large number of employees (the majority of the stakeholders or a coalition of the most powerful stakeholders) in order to bring about the change. Third-order change relates to the empowerment or capacitating of organisational members in such a manner that they are able to identify and recognise the existence of their current schema (in this case their management philosophy), and are capable of effecting change to this schema as they would see fit. Organisational members are now taught to see the schema and change it when and how they wish. It is clear from the above, that the relative ease with which change can be brought about within the organisation decreases significantly from first-to second-order change, and similarly from second- to third-order change (Van Tonder 2010:86).

4.3 INSPIRING ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE THROUGH AUTHENTIC COMMUNICATION

As communication is recognised as one of the most important aspects in an organisation undergoing change, the essential role of communication in a change initiative cannot be emphasised enough (Jackson & Callan 2001, in Dawson 2004:61). Hayes (2002, in Dawson 2004:61) argues that the features of communication networks and the effects of interpersonal relations can have a major influence on the process and outcomes of organisational change. The focus is on effective communication that informs employees, enables feedback and promotes wide scale consultation. Lewis *et al.* (2006:6) state that change agents should promote communication and participation, facilitate the process for change, and create a vision.

According to Carnall (2003, in Dawson 2004:62) authentic communication involves an ability to communicate clear objectives, to be consistent, especially under conditions of change, and to ensure that others understand and are aware of the reasons and intentions of the change. Carnall (2002) labels the management of attention, the management of trust, and the management of meaning as three important competencies necessary during the communication of change.

Baldoni (2004:20) argues that the ability to speak is not the same as the ability to communicate. Communication is a two-way process that involves speaking and listening as well as checking for understanding. The capacity to construct a message, address it to another, listen for feedback, process it, and continue to communicate in ways that are understood requires a complex set of skills and take time to develop. The value of listening cannot be emphasised enough in the communication process. Most communication experts contend that listening is the keystone communication skill for today's managers. Listening involves much more than hearing a message. Hearing is merely a physical component of listening. Listening is the process of actively decoding and interpreting verbal messages (Kreitner & Kinicki 1995:379). Shockley-Zalabak (1991:155) concurs and state that listening is as fundamental to effective communication as talking is. Shockley-Zalabak

(1991:157) continues that active listening includes the processes of hearing, assigning meaning, and verifying our interpretations. Skill in effective listening supports effective communication by increasing the accuracy of the message reception. Accurate message reception, in turn enables better responses-responses based on what was said, not what the listener thought might have been said. Active listening begins with an attitude about our role in the communication process. A positive active listening attitude begins with a genuine concern for understanding messages as others intended them- this enables us to sense meaning from another person's point of view. This attitude includes empathy for others and willingness to control our emotions to facilitate mutual understanding (Shockley-Zalabak 1991:157).

4.3.1 Communication strategies used in organisational change

Hayes (2007:181-182) refers to Clappitt, DeKoch and Cashman (2000) suggesting that based on their experience in several organisations and a thorough literature review, they have found that the communication mostly used are based on one or a combination of the following five strategies:

- **Spray and pray**

Employees are showered with all types of information in the hope that they will feel informed and have access to all the information they require. While some employees will be overwhelmed, others may attend only to the information that is related to their own personal agendas.

- **Tell and sell**

Change managers communicate a more limited set of messages they believe address core issues related to the proposed change. Employees are first told about the key issues and then the managers sell them the wisdom of their approach managing them. Change managers adopting this kind of strategy often spend a great deal of time planning sophisticated presentations but devote little time and energy to fostering meaningful dialogue and providing organisational members with the opportunity to discuss their concerns. These

managers assume they possess much of the information they need and they tend to place little value in input from others (Clampitt, DeKoch & Cashman, in Hayes 2007:181).

- **Underscore and explore**

As with the tell-and-sell approach, this strategy focuses attention on a limited set of fundamental issues linked to the change. Those who adopt this approach are concerned not only with developing a few core messages but also with listening attentively for potential misunderstandings and unrecognised obstacles.

- **Identify and reply**

This strategy is different from the first three in that the primary focus is the concerns of the organisational members. It is the reactive approach that involves a lot of listening in order to identify and then respond to concerns.

- **Withhold and uphold**

This strategy involves withholding information until necessary. When confronted by rumours, change managers uphold the party line. Some managers who adopt this strategy assume that information is power and they are reluctant to share it with anyone. Others assume that most organisational members are not sophisticated enough to grasp the 'big picture' (Hayes 2007:182).

Robbins (1987:398-406) is of opinion that the communication in organisations will continue to become more complex. This will force leaders to evaluate their communication effectiveness. Leaders should embrace communication and regard it as priority to ensure that when the entire organisation communicates, it does so with excellence.

4.3.2 Guidelines for effective communication

It has long been recognised that effective and appropriate communication is a vital ingredient in the success of change programmes (Kotter 1996). In

particular, at the individual level, appropriate communication has been identified as a significant factor in assisting employees understand both the need for change, and the personal effects of the proposed change. These have been regarded as especially important prerequisites for achieving change programme objectives, as they may help induce 'readiness for change' at a personal level (Armenakis & Harris 2002). In addition, communication can be used to reduce resistance, minimize uncertainty, and gain involvement and commitment as the change progresses which may, in turn, improve morale and retention rates (Klein, 1996 in Goodman & Truss 2004:218). At the organisational level, communication has been found to play an important role in enabling change managers to challenge embedded cultural and structural norms (Deal & Kennedy 1982; Lok & Crawford 1999; Pinnington & Edwards 2000). Conversely, it has also been shown that ineffective internal communication is a major contributor to the failure of change initiatives (Coulson-Thomas 1997).

4.3.2.1 *Use of context specific communication*

Goodman and Truss (2004:218) continue that despite the importance accorded to effective communication, there has been relatively little prior research into the precise mechanisms that managers can use to communicate effectively with employees during a change programme. The evidence available does however, suggest that communication needs to be context specific in order to be effective; what works well in one organisation under one set of circumstances cannot necessarily be successfully applied in another (Balogun & Hope-Hailey 2003).

4.3.2.2 *Use of appropriate communication methods*

Selecting the appropriate **method** for communication, and deciding what the **content** of that communication should be, are at the same time both extremely important and highly complex issues for change managers to address.

Methods of communication include issues of both **timing** and **media**. In terms of timing, Klein (1996) argues that both the content and the media of communication will need to be flexed as the change programme moves through the different stages. A static communication strategy developed at the outset of a major change programme is therefore likely to become increasingly inappropriate over time.

Armenakis and Harris (2002, Goodman & Truss 2004:218) argue that there are three communication strategies that can be used to generate readiness for change, persuasive communication, active communication and managing, or sharing information about the change. The way in which these are deployed needs to be varied according to the context of the change programme.

Concerning media, a number of choices are open to managers, including verbal, written and electronic (Klein 1996; Pitt *et al.* 2001). Balogun and Hope-Hailey (2003) argue that the choice of media should fit the significance and complexity of the message as well as the stage in the change process.

Whichever channels are chosen, the importance of regarding communication as a two-way process has also been highlighted. Theories of communication make it clear that effective communication depends on the receiver hearing the message as intended by the sender, and the feedback loop enables both sender and receiver to check understanding (Klein 1996; Johnson and Scholes 2002). The role of line managers and opinion leaders as lynchpins in the communication chain has also been recognised (Klein 1996:35).

In addition to the formal media available to change managers, research has also highlighted the importance of **informal communication networks** during change.

4.3.2.3 *Communication content*

The content of communication concerns what information is conveyed *to* employees before, during and after the change initiative, as well as what

information is sought *from* employees. Kitchen and Daly (2002) have identified three types of information that affect employees during change: first, what employees must know, including job-specific information; second, what employees should know, including desirable information about the organisation and, finally, what employees could know, including relatively unimportant office gossip. Klein (1996:41) has argued that employees will want to know as much information as possible in order to minimize uncertainty. The purpose of communication content in a change programme has variously been described as spreading a vision (Joffe & Glynn 2002) involving employees by seeking their input into the process and content of the change (Kitchen and Daly 2002), minimizing uncertainty (Klein 1996), overcoming barriers to change (Carnall 1997), gaining employee commitment (Kotter 1996) and challenging the status quo (Balogun & Hope-Hailey 2003).

Paton and McCalman (2002, in Dawson 2004:62) add to the above and include:

- Customisation of the message in order to ensure that it fits the audience intended for
- The tone of the message must not be or seem patronising and must also not offend people
- Recognising communication as a two-way process and acknowledging that feedback is essential
- To practice what you preach
- Using the appropriate medium of communication to ensure penetration so that the message reaches those it is intended for in the required time period.

The importance of communication and employee involvement is emphasised further in the Organisational Development (OD) approach, (see 4.2.1.1). This approach is based on the human relations perspective and emphasises the importance of participation and collaboration through a two-way process of

communication (French & Bell 1983, in Dawson 2004:62). Beckhard (1969, in Dawson 2004:62) proposes that the communication must be:

- Planned
- Attempts to consider and include all members of the organisation
- Involves the proposed change being supported by top management
- Has the objectives of change as being to improve working conditions and organisational effectiveness
- Involves an emphasis being placed on behavioural science techniques, which facilitates communication and problem solving among members.

Drucker (1999, in Booher 2007:42) writes that one of the eight key tenets of effective executives is taking responsibility for communication. He states that leaders lead; they take responsibility for the communication culture. Managers maintain; they go with the status quo. Drucker (1999, in Guerra 2009:124) states that several of the world's greatest leaders have lacked integrity and have adopted values that would not be shared by many people today. Managers, on the other hand, need a fundamental strategy for achieving the vision of an organisation (Wright & Noe 1996:419).

4.3.2.4 *Building bridges to bring about change*

Kotter and Cohen (2002:1-2) is of opinion that "People change what they do less because they are given analysis that shifts their thinking than because they are shown a truth that influence their feelings." This statement is especially applicable in large-scale organisational change, where you are dealing with new-technologies, mergers, acquisitions, restructurings, new strategies, cultural transformation, globalisation, and e-business- whether in an entire organisation, an office, a department, or a work group.

- ***Building emotional bridges***

Supporting change across an organisation relies on leaders to have a deep understanding of how to best affect collective behaviours. Altering deeply entrenched practices is no easy task. Too often leaders fail to effectively motivate and engage their audiences. Successful approaches to change enable people to make the journey from one place to another. The power of affective, social and structural bridges in supporting such change is essential in making such adjustments (Wilson 2010:21).

The emotional barriers are often the biggest challenges for change in collective action according to Ganz (in Wilson 2010:22). Ganz continues that in order to motivate people to adopt new attitudes and actions, leaders must be skilled at creating specific kinds of emotional narrative that enable change. Ganz points out that “If you’re living in fear, you’re in no place to experiment with new behaviours,” Feelings of fear, apathy, inertia, self-doubt, and isolation can undermine the ability for change. To counteract these emotions, Ganz encourages leaders to tell stories that spark a sense of hope, purpose, urgency, efficiency, and solidarity –these are all affective states that enable change. When participants are engaged in these emotions they become motivated and new capabilities for change can be developed (Wilson 2010:22). Bridging change through emotional narrative is one approach that can be followed.

- ***Building relational bridges***

Wilson (2010:22) state that to spread change socially throughout an organisation it is important to note that diffusion of ideas and new behaviours reaches a larger number of people and traverses a greater social distance when passed through weak ties (e.g. casual acquaintances) than strong ties (e.g. close friends and family).

Family and friends move in similar social circles and information one receives will greatly overlap with what one already knows. In contrast, acquaintances move in quite different social circles and will receive much more novel information, thus accelerating the diffusion of ideas and behaviours (Wilson

2010:22). If multiple social contacts or sources of social reinforcement are needed in order for a change of behaviour to occur, weak ties may in fact inhibit diffusion.

Centola in (Wilson 2010:22) refers to “complex contagions” or behaviours that require multiple social contacts before individuals feel sufficiently confident or pressured to adopt the behaviour themselves. Complex contagions require several exposures because they depend on strategic relationships, credibility, legitimacy, and they need emotional enforcement.

When dealing with complex situations traditional buckshot approaches to training, such as typical orientations, in which fairly random members of a community are gathered together, exposed to change initiatives and then return to their distant social circles, is not **the correct approach**. Most individuals will struggle to sustain newly acquired behaviours on their own. They will quickly revert to old habits that are sustained by the local culture. Instead, it is best to identify clusters of people, 3-5 colleagues with fairly strong ties, and work with them. These groups will be able to socially reinforce one another to sustain the behaviours in practice.

- ***Building structural bridges***

Building top down narratives and bottom up social connections are important, but Skocpol (in Wilson 2010:22) draws our attention to the role that mid-level associations play in bridging change. “Leaders must avoid the simple theories of change that suggest it occurs from either a top-down or a bottom-up approach,” Skocpol, as cited in Wilson (2010:22-23) is of opinion that “It’s both and social change occurs through institutions within the larger system that have the capacity to coordinate across levels simultaneously.”

Deep and lasting change of entrenched behaviours occurs by leveraging pre-existing social groups. Mid-level social structures in organisations, such as communities of practice, unions, and interest or hobby groups can play a vital role. These groups can play a vital role in supporting change in organisations since they connect individuals across organisational levels and do not operate solely at the top or the bottom. Seeding and developing help seeking and

knowledge sharing behaviours in these existing social groups might go a long way toward bridging the same behaviours throughout an organisation. An understanding of the kind of change that is aimed for, whether it is complex, or require people to unlearn deeply entrenched habits is essential. Thinking creatively about how to leverage emotion, social connections, and existing social associations in the company's favour will be necessary. It is necessary to understand the current stories in play and create stories that can be told that promote enabling emotions. Avoid stories that spark emotions that undermine the change you are aiming for, such as feelings of fear or apathy.

Focus on working with clusters of people. Do not work with isolated individuals no matter where they sit in the organisations' hierarchy. Understand and leverage the organisation's hidden, mid-level associations. Communities or informal affiliation groups can provide robust pathways to spread the needed change.

4.3.2.5 *Combining leadership and management*

Over the past few years a movement beyond management into the realm of business leadership has been one of the causes most fervently advocated by most corporate philosophers. Leadership differs from management. Leadership and management are two distinct and complementary systems of action. Each has its own function and characteristic activity. Both are necessary for success in a volatile business environment.

Management is concerned with coping with complexity. Management practices and procedures are largely responsible for the emergence of large organisations in the twentieth century. Without proper management, complex enterprises tend to become chaotic in ways that threaten their existence. Good management brings a degree of order and consistency to key aspects, such as quality and profitability (Puth 2002:69-70). Leadership on the other hand, is concerned with coping with change. The fact that the business world has become more competitive and more volatile is part of the reason why leadership has become so important in recent years. The reason for this shift

can be contributed to among others, the deregulation of markets, tougher international competition, overcapacity in capital-intensive markets and faster technological changes.

Although people attach different values to leadership, “leadership” in this context, means the visionary perspective that permits one to know what will work and what will not work and the passionate persistence to stimulate people to strive towards peak performances that will enhance both the organisational and their individual well-being (Puth 2002:69). It is important to note that most successful leaders make their sense of purpose clear to those around them, not by force, coercion, or formal authority, but by their sincere devotion to people and purpose and by their patient perseverance in the face of all obstacles. It is very unfortunate that many corporations today are over-managed and under-led.

4.3.3 Leadership communication

The implication behind the concept of leadership is that there is a combination of personal qualities and skills that allow some people to obtain from their employees a response that is cohesive, effective and enthusiastic, whereas other people in the same situation cannot accomplish such results (Guerra 2009:122). Wright and Noe (1996:390) add that “Leadership is the process of inspiring and empowering others to voluntarily commit themselves to achieving the leader’s vision”.

Without communication there can be no management. The communication skills of an organisation’s leaders and their understanding of leadership communication, directly influence all other management functions in the organisation. Corporate philosophers, such as Mintzberg, Kanter, Nasbitt, and many others, indicate new directions in the nature and actual processes of leadership which will require a much greater emphasis on the communicating abilities of the modern leader (Puth 2002:11-12).

According to Baldoni (2004:20) effective leadership communication is rooted in the values and culture (see 3.3.4) of the organisation. Effective

communication is furthermore grounded in the character of the leader and the values of the organisation. Leaders of character communicate with openness, integrity, and honesty. Effective leadership messages work to create a bond of trust between a leader and follower. These messages give the followers good reason to support the leader and what he or she is trying to accomplish.

Baldoni (2004:20) continues that leadership messages are of strategic importance to key stakeholders as they focus on the issues that may affect people who work for the organisation, do business with the company, or invest in the company. It is therefore obvious that leadership communication is essential to success because it is the most important means by which leaders connect to their constituents. This connection provides the impetus for bringing people together for a common cause. Managers that learn how to communicate as leaders will be able to achieve greater results because employees will be better informed, have a better understanding of their roles, and be internally motivated to succeed.

Miller (2006:230) is of opinion that effective leadership communication requires that attention be paid to what is said, the content, as well as how the content is communicated. The most thorough consideration of leadership communication has come from the work of Gail Fairhurst and Robert Sarr (1996) regarding the way in which leaders “frame” in interaction with a variety of constituencies. Fairhurst and Sarr (1996, in Miller 2006:230) see leadership as a “language game” and they argue that the most essential skill for this game is the ability to frame. Framing is a way of managing meaning in which one or more aspects of the subject at hand are selected or highlighted over other aspects. Leadership is not about events, but about managing meaning (Turner 2003, in Miller 2006:230). Effective leaders begin the framing process by first having a clear understanding of their own view of reality and their own goals for the organisation and communication. This implies that effective leaders know where they are and where they want to go. Effective leaders are also those who pay attention to the context, recognising times and situations in which there are opportunities for shaping meaning or when there are constraints that will hamper the framing process. According to

Fairhurst and Sarr (1996, in Miller 2006:230) effective leaders use language in ways that manage meaning in powerful and appropriate ways.

4.3.3.1 Purpose of leadership communication

Leaders, communicate not only information but also attitudes and assumptions. In any leadership situation the values to be gained and the merits of certain courses of action are either clearly stated or implied. Leaders can clearly articulate the consequences of visions, goals, actions, policies, events, decisions or solutions. Most modern writers on organisational leadership suggest that leaders can make or break their organisations.

Leadership is a matter of cooperation. The success of leaders depends on the quality of the cooperation they are able to establish between themselves and their subordinates (Eriksen 2001:22). Baldoni (2004:20-21) concurs that the creation of a bond of trust between leader and follower, together with driving results ensure that leader and follower work together more efficiently because they understand the issues and know what is to be done to accomplish their goals. Aspects of importance regarding leadership communication are:

4.3.3.1.1 Affirmation of organisational vision and mission and purpose for change

Leaders need to reinforce what the organisation stands for, where it is going, and how it will accomplish things (Baldoni 2004:20). According to Maurer (2005:31) continuous vision painting and showing how each person contributes is essential. The vision is not a static document, but a process that gets added to and clarified as work progress. Furthermore, according to Eckes (2001, in Lewis *et al.* 2006:122) leaders should communicate their expectations of others in making that vision a reality. Bridges and Mitchell (2002, in Lewis *et al.* 2006:122) claimed that leaders can help to better

manage the change process by reiterating the purpose, picture, plan and part employees should play in moving the organisation forward. Having a clear vision is necessary for getting others on board. The leader's communications should reflect the values cherished by him and the organisation as this will ensure authenticity and meaning as well as give people the reason to believe in the leadership (Baldoni 2004:24). Lewis *et al.* (2006:128) suggest that if many are involved in the creation of the vision, many will understand and internalise it.

4.3.3.1.2 *Drive transformational change*

As communication is a key driver of change, the leader has to stay on message and repeat it (Baldoni 2004:21). The change process can also be facilitated either by guiding specific steps in the change process or by delegating responsibility to oversee the guiding thereof to specific individual (Lewis *et al.* 2006:119).

4.3.3.1.3 *Issue a call to action*

Leaders often need to galvanise people to rally behind an initiative (Baldoni 2004:21). Leaders should also ignite excitement. Passion is vital to getting people excited. Be motivational in your communication as conviction is contagious (Baldoni 2004:22).

4.3.3.1.4 *Reinforce organisational capability*

Baldoni (*ibid*) suggest that communication is often used to underscore the organisation's strengths and make people feel good about the organisation.

4.3.3.1.5 *Create an environment where motivation can flourish*

Just as communication reinforces organisational purpose, it must also affirm the role of the individual (Baldoni 2004:21). Leaders must be able to raise the

individual expectations of employees so that collectively they function better. Effective leaders are always developing, delivering, and sustaining their leadership messages as part of their regular communication. Leaders who communicate regularly and frequently in good times and bad will improve organisational and individual performances, get results, and create a successful enterprise (Baldoni 2004:21).

4.3.3.1.6 Keep stakeholders informed

During times of change rumours and misleading information often circulate. Leaders who learn to use informal networks well can gain a huge advantage (Duck 2001, in Lewis *et al.* 2006:125).

4.3.3.1.7 Sustaining the message

Baldoni (2004:22) states that all too often there is the assumption that once the message is told, either one on one, to a team, or even at an all-employee meeting, the communication work is done. This is not the case, as the heart of effective communication is sustainment. Repetition, however, is not the same as saying the same words over and over again; it is a matter of repeating the same themes with fresh ideas and fresh stories. Within organisations, leadership communication extends beyond the leader's words. It embraces the plethora of communication channels – newsletters, e-mails, banners, and of course all employee meetings. Baldoni (2004:23) continues that genuine communication can occur when you get people face-to-face; then words become secondary to reaction, body language, and most important of all, listening. Amplifying the leadership message also depends on sharing efforts with other people – leaders at every level of the organisation – to inform, involve, and ignite. When this occurs, leadership messages multiply exceptionally and people feel a genuine connection to their leaders as well as to what they are doing.

Leadership communication is about articulating a message with simplicity and authenticity. Commitment, not simply rhetorical flash, is what leaders must strive for in their public words, because it is commitment that is sustainable from day to day, year to year.

4.3.3.1.8 Active listening by leaders

Brown (2009:8) states that truly effective communication involves more than just expressing yourself clearly, it also requires effective listening as was indicated in the discussion on authentic communication (see 4.3). Covey (in Brown 2009:8) explains that the function of speaking is to be understood, but the function of listening is to understand. According to Baldoni (2004:23) leadership by nature is an active process. The pursuit of action can however sometimes lead to inattention to an important part of communications – listening. It is by listening to others that leaders learn what is really going on in the organisation. Therefore, good leaders adopt a shift in mind-set; they consider listening to be an action step. When they do this, they make time to listen and in the process feel that they are getting things done. People need to have a voice in the organisation and a means to express themselves. Organisations where the communication climate is open and people can express themselves perform better than organisations where people are tight-lipped and close-mouthed, and worse, expect everyone to follow suit. Powell (in Baldoni 2004:23) is of opinion that it is also important to hear bad news. According to him, if you are not hearing bad news, you have a problem. A leader attuned to the organisation is less likely to be blindsided by problems. Problems will occur, of course, but the leader, who is visible and meet and mingle with employees, is one who will be able to spot difficulties before they become catastrophes. A leaders' willingness to hear employees' views, especially those, counter to their own, will demonstrate that they value their people and want them to be part of the communication process.

Skilful listeners control mental arguments, avoid jumping to assumptions and conclusions, and are careful to stereotype others. Active listeners stop talking

long enough to hear what others have to say. When others are finished talking, active listeners frequently paraphrase or feedback what they have understood. They allow people to verify the accuracy of those perceptions or to explain what inaccuracies exist. Active listeners use questions for meaning clarification and do not interrupt attempts to explain ideas or positions. The skill of active listening is practiced to foster understanding of another's position - not necessarily to generate agreement with that position (Shockley-Zalabak 1991:160). Baldoni (2004:22) suggest that one of the best ways to involve others is by listening as communication is a give-and-take process. Employees who sense that they are being heard and really listened to are much more likely to buy into a message.

4.3.3.1.9 Active leadership communication

It is often said that managers do not listen. This leads to managers not achieving the results they were hired to achieve. Taking communication for granted happens very easily. Verbalising is not difficult, neither is listening. The challenge is to do them together and do them regularly. One of the reasons people find communication difficult is because it takes so much time. Communication requires discipline, thought, perseverance, and the willingness to do it again and again every day. According to Lewis *et al.* (2006:123), an extensive review of literature indicated that participation and interaction should be solicited. Specific tactics for input might include using Appreciative Inquiries, Open Space Technology, and Dialogue. Face-to face communication was seen as the most effective method of communication by many authors.

4.3.3.1.10 Clarify expectations

According to Baldoni (2004:24) it is important to inform people about what you expect of the individuals and performers. Inform people what the issues are and how these issues relate to them. Leaders must not simply tell; they must also show how the information is important to listeners (Baldoni 2004:22).

Lewis *et al.* (2006:126) agree, stating that tasks, responsibilities and roles should be clarified and stakeholders must be given as much information as possible as early as possible.

4.3.3.1.11 Repeat key messages

Repetition of leadership messages adds a sense of importance as well as urgency; and common themes ensure consistency in thought, words, and deeds.

4.3.3.1.12 Ask for feedback

The leader should encourage employees to inform him about how he is doing. It is important to establish a sense of trust prior to asking for feedback, but by observing some of the behaviours described here you will lay the foundation upon which to build your communications (Baldoni 2004:24).

4.3.3.1.13 Commitment to communicate

Different levels and styles of communication and media should be utilised. Information sharing, building understanding, identifying implications and gaining commitment are all ways of altering behaviour. Of the authors who address this topic recommend using a variety of channels to communicate (Lewis *et al.* 2006:128).

Although there are countless ways to communicate, what is important is to communicate with consistency, constancy, and frequency. Leaders, if they want to convey their vision, rally support for organisational goals, and achieve inspired results, must communicate all the time and do it willingly. Words by themselves are bits of information. Words backed by the leader's character, conviction, and personal example have the power to communicate: to inform, to exhort, to cheer, to heel, or to inspire (Baldoni 2004:24).

4.3.3.1.14 Use threats, punishments, and intimidation

Finally, a much less popular theme that involves tactics with a darker side of advice is the point where managers might invoke a punishing strategy to kick-start the change (Lewis *et al.* 2006:128).

According to Puth (2002:17) a close study of the major shifts identified by modern corporate philosophers clearly indicates and reinforces an underlying movement away from a task-oriented approach to a people-oriented approach. Puth (2002:69) continues that there is a general tendency to move beyond the traditional management approach to one of dynamic leadership. Essentially, leading has to do with influencing others through communication. The style and substance of communication distinguish dynamic leadership from traditional management.

4.4 THE ROLE OF MANAGEMENT IN COMMUNICATING ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

The success of implementing change is generally associated with those who facilitate the change process. The change agent is defined here as a manager who seeks “to reconfigure an organisation’s roles, responsibilities, structures, outputs, processes, systems, technology or other resources” in the light of improving organisational effectiveness (Buchanan & Badham 1999, in Saka 2003:483).

Elving and Hansma (2008:1) found that trust in top management had a significant influence on the support of change. It was also surmised that the role of direct supervisors had a very large influence on the contribution to change. These authors concluded that especially the interactions between management and employees are often troublesome during organisational change. They add that the success of organisational change largely depended on the informative and communicative skills of management at all levels.

During organisational change employees must be informed what exactly will change, how these changes will take place, and how the changed organisation will face the future. Robertson, Roberts and Porras (1993, in Elving & Hansma 2008:1) developed a model of the dynamics of planned organisational change. This model indicated that the success of any change in organisations largely depends on the capabilities that the organisation has in enabling its workforce to implement the change.

Communication with employees should be an integrative part of the change efforts and strategies. Leadership of any organisation and at all hierarchical levels of the organisation has a great responsibility in communicating about the change, and persuading the workforce to make the necessary changes in their day to day routines. Leaders should be consistent in what they pay attention to, measure, and control in order for employees to receive clear signals about what is important in the organisation. Inconsistent leaders confuse employees and create a situation where employees spend a lot of time on trying to decipher and find meaning in inconsistent signals. The way in which difficult situations are dealt with by leaders, communicates a powerful message to employees about organisational culture (Quick & Nelson 2009:555).

The degree to which change agents can find a balance between “being the ‘technical’ expert – the person assumed to have the answers – and the process facilitator – the person with the techniques to allow the organisation to find its own answers” is questionable in the light of the following aspects: diversity of values and interests; politicised and value-driven decision making process; subjective interpretation of information; and the role of norms and cognitive schemes in change efforts (Paton & McCalman 2000:197).

According to Roberts (2001:128) cultural aspects are also frequently one of the most overlooked areas during the assessment of the effects of a planned change in an organisation. Grobler and Puth (2002:2) agree, stating that the first step in the change process is changing the culture of the organisation (as discussed in chapter 3, see 3.3.4).

Buchanan and Boddy (1992, in Saka 2003:483) list competencies of effective change agents as clarity of specifying goals, team building activities, communication skills, negotiation skills and “influencing skills” to gain commitment to goals. Senge *et al.* (1999, in Saka 2003:483) state that managers are problem solvers in practice who do not pretend to be objective in their decision making. They justify their conclusions by citing lack of time or information or the complexity of the situation. The organisational members, who are not only the potential change-makers, but also the recipients of organisational change, are likely to be more questionable about the value of change. As internal communication creates the context within which managerial change communication manifests, the importance of internal communication (see 3.3.2) has to be emphasised again.

4.4.1 Information versus communication

Internal communication is often referred to as the “nervous system” of an organisation. Organisational communication, according to Francis (1989, in Elving & Hansma 2008:2-3) commonly has two goals. Firstly, informing employees about their tasks and about policy and other issues of the organisation, and secondly, communication as a means to create community within the organisation.

A distinction can be made between organisational communication with a purpose to provide information (“communicatio”) and organisational communication as a means to create community spirit (“communicare”) (Francis 1989; Postmes & De Wit 2001; De Ridder 2005, in Elving & Hansma 2008:3). Within organisational change a distinction can be made between the information given about the change, and the sense of a community within the organisation before, during and after the change. The organisation should inform employees about the transformation and supply information as to the reason for the change, as well as possible worries and uncertainties that employees initially will have. This information given by the organisation usually comes from management as the sender, and with employees as the

receiver of information. Middle managers and direct supervisors habitually communicate part of this information to the employees. In this sense, common communicational theories of sender, message, channel, receiver and noise could be applied to this communication.

According to the media richness theory (Daft & Lengel 1987:358) communication media differ in ability to facilitate understanding. There is a fit between a communication task and the medium used to communicate that task. Media can be characterised as high or low in “richness” based on their capacity to facilitate shared meaning. The higher the level of equivocality and uncertainty of the communication task, the richer a medium should be matched to that task. Face-to-face communication is perceived as the richest medium, while the poorest media are written and formalised like a database or a formal report (Daft & Lengel 1987:358-359).

Elving and Hansma (2008:5) opine that information alone is not sufficient for managing organisational change. Herzig and Jimmieson (2006, in Elving & Hansma 2008:5) concur, stating that through social interaction, namely communication; the construction of meaning takes place. This is important because within this framework there is a special place for bottom-up communication.

4.4.2 Communication needs during organisational change

Communication is vital to the implementation of organisational change. Lewis (1999:44) argues that “The empirical picture that is slowly emerging indicates that communication processes and organisational change implementation are inextricably linked processes”. If organisational change is about how to change the tasks of individual employees, communication about change and information to these employees are essential and an integrative part of the change efforts and strategies. The most frequently used tactics for effectively managing change include encouraging participation from as many employees as possible, addressing their concerns about the change programme, or ensuring that leaders act as role models for changes (Heracleous 2002, in

Elving & Hansma 2008:6). “Increasing scarcity of resources will put pressure on managers to examine their performance in using resources wisely. The cry for accountability in management that demands demonstrated results will be continued and will intensify” according to Garnett and Kouzmin (2000:62).

Emergent changes have occurred when the implications of localised concrete changes are generalised into more broadly held concepts (Mintzberg & Waters 1985, in Young 2009:529). Senge (1990, 1997) has highlighted that in a world of increasing interdependence and rapid change it is no longer possible to figure it out from the top. Wheatley (2006, in Young 2009:529) goes further by suggesting that relationships are the basis of existence, and disorder must be embraced as the source of new order. Within this paradigm philosophies such as “wholeness” (Wheatley 2006) as well as methods such as dialogue (Bohm 2004) and sensemaking (Weick 1995) become increasingly relevant in order to deal with the chaotic demands of emerging team, or group, learning.

The emotional engagement of others is essential and there is a need for communication instead of information. Emotional engagement implies a need for workforce involvement in decision-making since participative decision-making is positively related to engagement in the organisation. The process of involving the workforce in decision making is a process that requires communication. Although leaders concur with this notion (Doyle, Claydon & Buchanan 2000), research has shown that this approach to decision making in organisational change is rare and success and process are poorly evaluated (Elving & Hansma 2008:6-7). Organisations will have to find ways of proving to employees and stakeholders that the change-effort was effective and that it made sense.

4.4.3 Sensemaking

Weick (1995), Bolden and Gosling (2006), and Elving and Hansma (2008) are some of the authors that see sensemaking as an essential part of effective leadership. According to Thomas *et al.* (1993, in Kezar & Eckel 2002:314) the

key support role of senior administrative support is creating an environment where sensemaking activities can occur. Sensemaking is the reciprocal process where people seek information, assign meaning to it, and act. Sensemaking is the collective process of structuring meaningful sense out of uncertain and ambiguous organisational situations (March 1994; Weick 1995, in Kezar & Eckel 2002:314). Sensemaking allows people to craft, understand, and accept new conceptualisations of the organisation (Smircich 1983) and then to act in ways consistent with those new interpretations and perceptions (Gioia *et al.* 1996; Weick 1979, in Kezar & Eckel 2002:314). Visible action is important because it demonstrates the outcomes of the hard work, reinforcing the new sense made during the change process.

Bolden and Gosling (2006:156), define the sensemaking role of a leader as: “The leader makes sense of complexity and uncertainty on the basis of strong moral beliefs and an emotional engagement of others”. Two related terms in communicating organisational change are implied here, they are complexity and uncertainty. These terms are specifically relevant in terms of organisational change since the leader bases his way of sensemaking on the beliefs and engagement of others. This implies that communication as opposed to information is essential (as was illustrated in 4.3.2).

4.4.4 Line communication and the role of leaders

Line communication is a concept often referred to in connection with large organisations. This refers to the information and communication that is delegated to the lower levels of management. These lower levels are in charge of passing on this information and communicating it to management levels below them and to the workforce. This process seems to be of central importance to the communication in large complex organisations (Elving & Hansma 2008:8). Line authority is an effective communications channel. In this time of employee empowerment and decisions by consensus, the importance of the authority hierarchy is often overlooked. Yet there are few large organisations that do not rely on formal authority as the ultimate

decision-making locus and the source of the necessary accountability that infuses well-managed command and control systems. Such structures permeate organisational life and are viewed as legitimate by most organisational participants. Quite clearly *communiqués* from those in authority carry both practical and symbolic weight (Klein *et al.* 1974; Snyder and Morris 1984; Young and Post 1993).

Line management, because it carries more organisational muscle than staff positions, also has a greater communications impact. The credibility of a message is directly related to the status of the source of that message and higher status is normally accorded to the line hierarchy (Kiesler & Mirson 1975, in Klein 1996:35).

The use of authority does not interfere with the more recently popular participative or consensus-based processes (Troy 1989, in Klein 1996:35). Research suggests that it enhances the distribution of influence down through the hierarchy when each successively lower level is fully informed and is made a “communications partner” (Daft & Huber 1986; Katz & Kahn 1978, in Klein 1996:35).

4.4.5 Specific role of middle management

Within flatter organisations there are often only strategic management and direct supervision. Larger organisations, with multiple levels in their hierarchy usually have middle management as well. Research has shown that the perceived level of feedback is positively related to high performance. As the direct supervisor is the logical person to provide this feedback in comparison to higher level of management, this supports the idea that the direct supervisor influences the contribution that the workforce is willing to make (Michael, Leschinsky & Gagnon 2006:8). Next to the possibility of providing feedback by middle managers, these managers are closer to the workforce and therefore are probably more in sync with the needs of the workforce than strategic management is, according to Elving and Hansma (2008:10).

Pye (2005:45) is of opinion that leaders have a dual role to play: “in part, helping to extract appropriate cues (i.e. shaping key sense-making reference points) and in part, providing a crucial cue (i.e. being a key referent point) for others to extract” this duality lies in the shaping and being of key reference point in sensemaking. Aside from the sense-making and translating element a leader can bring to an organisation amid change, there is the envisioning and energising element a leader can bring in communicating that change.

What is problematic about this notion is that a big proportion of the change is forced on the leaders themselves and it needs no explaining that it is a tough mission to envision and inspire people on implementing a change that they themselves do not approve of (Kavanagh & Ashkanasy 2006, in Elving & Hansma 2008:8).

Communication must be regarded as a key process skill. Change agents must be able to communicate competently to be able to get others to understand and accept change (Hersey & Blanchard 1988, in Dawson 2004:61).

Given the change literature's emphasis on the importance of the leader in enacting change, attention will now be paid to a discussion of a leadership theory that is intimately tied to change: transformational leadership.

4.4.6 The transformational leader

Eisenbach *et al.* (1999:83) explain that one of the most comprehensive leadership theories of organisational transformation is the theory of transformational and transactional leadership. Transactional leadership develops from the exchange process between leaders and subordinates wherein the leader provides rewards in exchange for subordinates' performance. Transformational leadership behaviour goes beyond transactional leadership and motivates followers to identify with the leader's vision and to sacrifice their self-interest for that of the group or the organisation (Bass, 1985 in Eisenbach *et al.* 1999:83). Tichy and Devanna (1990) show that transformational leaders engage in a process which includes

a sequence of phases: recognising the need for change; creating a new vision; and then institutionalising the change. A review of the literature on change oriented or outstanding leadership, which also includes charismatic and visionary leadership indicates that the “majority of the approaches share the common perspective that by articulating a vision, fostering acceptance of group goals, and providing individualised support, effective leaders change the basic values, beliefs, and attitudes of followers so that they are willing to perform beyond the minimum levels specified by the organisation” (Podsakoff *et al.* 1996:260).

Most of the research on transformational and charismatic leadership paradigms has focussed on its relationship to individual and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction and performance (both subjective and objective). According to Bass (1995, in Eisenbach *et al.* 1999:84), charisma, attention to individualised development, and the ability and willingness to provide intellectual stimulation are critical to leaders whose organisations are faced with demands for renewal and change.

Leadership, according to McLaurin and Al Amri (2008:15) is a dynamic relationship which is based on mutual influence between leaders and followers which result in a higher level of motivation and technical development as it promotes changes. The theories of leadership have evolved from traits, behaviours and situations to a more change-oriented approach. Two key types of leadership identified are – Charismatic Leadership and Transformational Leadership.

Great theoretical debates over the different interpretations of the change phenomenon can be found in the academic literature (see 4.2). There is however an equally significant body (Fernandez & Rainey 2006) of research indicating the pragmatic reality that, individuals frequently do get tasked with, and are successful in, and that is making change happen in organisations. Fernandez and Rainey (2006); Kotter (1996); and Kouzes and Posner (2007) among others present guidelines through which leaders can master the challenges of leading change. The original concept of transformational leadership was anchored in the ability to create such change: “leadership is

nothing if not linked to collective purpose; that the effectiveness of leaders must be judged not by their press clippings but by actual social change” (MacGregor Burns 1978:3).

Cox (2001, in Hay 2006:2) state that there are two basic categories of leadership: **transactional** and **transformational**. The distinction between transactional and transformational leadership was first made by Downton (1973), as cited by Hay (2006:2) but the idea only started gaining currency until McGregor Burns published a study on political leaders in 1978. Burns distinguished between ordinary (transactional) leaders, who exchanged tangible rewards for the work and loyalty of followers, and extraordinary (transformational leaders) who engaged with followers, focused on higher intrinsic needs, and raised consciousness about the significance of specific outcomes and new ways in which outcomes might be achieved (Barnett, McCormick & Conners 2001; Gellis 2001; Griffin 2003; Judge & Piccolo 2004, in Hay 2006: 2). This idea was developed further by Bernard Bass, who disputed Burns’ conception of transactional and transformational leadership as opposites of a continuum. He perceives them as separate concepts and state that good leaders demonstrate characteristics of both (Judge & Piccolo 2004:755).

Two tendencies that emerged over the past three decades gave rise to the interest in transformational leadership. They are (1) significant global and economic changes from the early 1970s that led to significant organisational change. Changes often included downsizing and the adoption of new forms of organisational arrangement. These changes took their toll on employee satisfaction and empowerment and broke the old social contract of long-term employment in return for employee loyalty (Griffin 2003:1). Organisations needed to resolve the apparently contradictory challenge of finding new ways of affecting change while building employee morale. According to (Conger, in Hayes 2006:2) new approaches to leadership were needed. (2) Simic (1998:50) found that the theoretical base of work on leadership, available during the 1970s was founded in explorations of traits, behaviours, and situations (contingency theories) and failed to account to some untypical

qualities of leaders. Leithwood (in Cashin *et al.* 2000:1) defines transformational leadership as follows:

Transformational leadership is that which: facilitates a redefinition of people's mission and vision, a renewal of their commitment and the restructuring of their systems for goal accomplishment. It is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents. Hence, transformational leadership must be grounded in moral foundation.

Bass, (in Maroun 2008:21) states that a transformational leader possesses four specific characteristics: charisma, vision, intellectual stimulation and inspiration. Maroun (2008:21) refers to ChanginMinds .org stating that transformational leaders put passion and energy into everything, care about their employees and want them to succeed. They balance their attention between action that sustain progress and the mental state of their followers. Transformational leaders are very people-orientated and believe that success comes through commitment.

Maroun (2008:21) continues that transformational leadership starts with the development of a vision, a view of the future that will excite and convert potential followers. These leaders then constantly sell the vision and take every opportunity to convince others to support it. Parallel to the selling the transformational leader is seeking the way forward.

Transformational leaders are always out and about, stand up for what they believe in and continually motivate their followers. They are completely committed to the vision and methods such as ceremonies, rituals and other symbolism are used as motivational tools (Maroun 2008:21). Of late the transformational leader is often referred to as the charismatic leader. Charismatic leaders exhibit behaviour or actions that are inspirational, and the enthusiasm they prompt heavily influences followers. From many different definitions, it can be concluded that charismatic leaders are those who are highly confident, have a clear vision, engage in unconventional behaviour, and act as a change agent while remaining realistic about environmental

constraints. Charismatic leaders are believed to possess particular personality traits and abilities. Robbins (1992) attributes the following characteristics to charismatic leaders: self-confidence, strong faith in vision, out of ordinary behaviour, and change seekers. House (1977, in McLaurin & Al Amri 2008:17) describes charismatic leaders as having the following behavioural traits: role modelling, image building, articulation of goals, showing of confidence, and arousing follower's interest (McLaurin & Al Amri 2008:16-17).

4.4.6.1 Links between transformational leadership and change

As the above descriptions of the change and transformational leadership literature illustrate, there is a need to integrate these perspectives to gain a greater understanding of how to effectively enact change. The leadership and change literature both show that certain transformational leadership qualities are uniquely appropriate for leading certain types of change. Research by Eisenbach *et al.* (1999: 84) in the leadership area supports the idea that transformational leadership is better for non-routine situations (Bass 1985). Furthermore, Pawar and Eastman (1997) propose that organisations will be more receptive to transformational leadership when adaptation (as opposed to efficiency) is the goal. In the change literature, the definition of event-based pacing (i.e. centered on maintaining status quo and achieving specific goals (Gersick 1994) may be a better fit with transactional leadership that emphasises clarification of goals, follower compliance through incentives and rewards, with a focus on task completion (Bass 1995). In order to further this argument, Eisenbach *et al.* (1999:84) describe areas of convergence between the two literatures that point to the appropriateness of transformational leadership in enacting change.

Transformational, charismatic, and visionary leaders can successfully change the status quo in their organisations by displaying the appropriate behaviours at the appropriate stage in the transformation process. When there is a realisation that the old ways no longer work, such leaders may undertake the

task of developing an appealing vision of the future. A good vision provides both a strategic and a motivational focus. It provides a clear statement of the purpose of the organisation and is, at the same time, a source of inspiration and commitment. Consistent with Ford and Ford (1994), this view holds that leaders create change by providing a vision that is attractive to followers rather than creating dissatisfaction with the status quo. There is yet no consensus in the transformational leadership literature concerning whether a crisis or dissatisfaction with the status quo is necessary for transformational leadership.

4.5 IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGE

Tornatzky and Johnson (1982:193) define implementation as *the translation of any tool or technique, process, or method of doing, from knowledge to practice. It encompasses that range of activities which take place between “adoption” of a tool or technique (defined as a decision or intent to use the technology) and its stable incorporation into on-going organisational practice.*

While it is common for corporate management training programs to provide examples of change process models, discussion of change implementation models is infrequent. Considering the high percentage of failed change management efforts, it seems essential that organisations direct more attention to the specifics of change execution (Stragalas 2010:31). According to Russ (2008:199), implementation is the most critical phase of change. Russ quotes Real and Poole (2005) stating “Without implementation, the most brilliant and potentially far reaching innovation remains just that – potential. It is in the implementation that organisations perfect the promise of innovation. In implementation, organisations put ideas, designs, and visions to work”. Communication plays a critical role during the throes of the implementation phase; for, at its root, organisational change is a communicative challenge (Allen *et al.* 2007, in Russ 2008:199). Organisations do not change through automation. Change is implemented and sustained through human

communication. Lewis (2000:128) postulates that implementers of change clearly see communication as a significantly challenging aspect of change. Implementers often struggle with problems related to creating and communicating vision, sensemaking and feedback, establishing legitimacy, and communicating about goal achievement.

Thaspia (1990:15) states that “organisational change is a process and not necessarily an event”. This author describes it as a participative and consultative process. This means that it is ongoing and happens all the time. Even if the change process is well managed, the results could be disastrous if the wrong change solution is selected. This results when managers adopt ‘pet’ solutions that were successfully applied elsewhere but under very different circumstances.

The questions of who should decide which changes are appropriate, and should people accept responsibility for changes that they have not chosen and appear to be wrong, now arise. Burnes (1992:242) therefore reinforces the importance of communication and worker participation. Burns (1992) emphasises the importance of managers creating conditions in which individual initiative and team work thrive, and warns against identifying and prescribing what individuals should do. Managers should no longer identify and implement some ideal universal model. Managers should rather, together with those most closely affected, establish the structures and practices necessary to operate effectively under conditions which prevail at any particular point in time.

According to Price and Chahal (2006:242) senior management has a key leadership role in developing the vision and achieving change through consultation rather than by *diktat*. However, where a traditional non-consultative culture exists and the workforce do not have the appropriate decision-making skills, senior management needs to create conditions in which the desired culture/required culture develops and the workforce becomes more able to contribute to the consultative process. In the next section the different phases and steps when implementing change will be explored.

4.5.1 Evaluation of current situation and preparing the organisation for change

Stragalas (2010:31) proposes that managers would benefit from the review of broad scale organisation approaches, rather than primarily focussing on process models at the individual level, where the focus is on employee reaction rather than practical execution of specific steps. Another important point to consider is that an organisation's ability to effectively plan and manage change depends on how reviews and analysis takes into account its existing culture. Changing and adapting the cultural paradigms usually takes considerably more time than implementing new procedures or technology (Price & Chahal 2006:242).

Williams (1989:57) detailed some factors that influence the rate of cultural change and observed that: "It must be noted that some of these factors can operate to promote either change or stability. Thus, for example, a crisis may promote change and/or may result in feelings of insecurity which cause rigidity and resistance to change." He continues that it is important that organisations not only examine what process and cultures exists today, but also why they are that way. This can consume a considerable amount of time and resources. When managers have gained an understanding of why current processes and cultures exist, managers can plan how to leave the present state and assess more realistically and also assess knock-on effects.

People often do not recognise the need for change when they are satisfied with the experience of previous success. Change for change's sake should however be avoided, particularly if things are going well and the external environment is stable (Price & Chahal 2006:242).

Grobler and Puth (2002:3-6) identify the following causes of change:

- Political changes: "Deep structural uprooting" involving unprecedented change in country's governments, and political views that results in total changes in political structures on a global basis.
- Economic changes: the 24x7x52 customer that want to be and need to be catered for 24 hours a day.

- Social changes: The boom in better governance and social responsibility” that puts business and governments under pressure from many sides and from an increasing range of stockholders to improve governance.
- Technological changes: “The death of distance” where sustaining technologies are implemented in situations where technology and organisational structure work together to establish incremental change in the procedures of a company. Disruptive technologies require a total new structure and strategy (Grobler & Puth 2002:3-6).

During the preparation of the organisation change managers should assess the nature, scope, context and direction of the change and establish a preparation team. The make-up of this team should be carefully considered by management to represent a wide range of stakeholders including a cross-section of the entire workforce.

To avoid feelings of mistrust and resentment which are the fundamental ingredients of resistance, it is essential for managers to ensure that they act fairly towards everyone. Transparency is essential and certain groups or individuals should not be highlighted; this may cause unnecessary duress before the workforce has been fully consulted and the full nature of the change process decided upon. Listening to the workforce while preparing the organisation for change, demonstrates respect and is a powerful tool to build self-esteem during potentially turbulent times.

4.5.2 Developing the vision and implementation plan

Price and Chahal (2006:247) continue stating that when feedback from the previous step is analysed, it will give change managers a feeling of the nature of the possible direction of the change. When the implementation team’s first task of defining a change vision is complete, the group creates as many change strategy options as possible to achieve this vision, always remembering there are several paths to every target. The feedback from the first step will be of great value here.

The process of evaluation now follows and each option is tested against the following questions:

- Does the option have a clear perspective and systematic approach?
- Does the option support the goals of the organisation?
- Were all the working environments considered?
- Is the option viable from a resources perspective?
- Have personal goals influenced this option?

The options must now be brainstormed and evaluated within the group until a change plan is forged. This plan is likely to be a hybrid of a number of options. Once a plan has been decided upon it must be developed to a working document (Price & Chahal 2006:247).

Several authors in the planned change literature have noted the importance of vision and motivation (Fairhurst 1993; Ford & Ford 1995). Ford and Ford (1995:557) argue that one of the key breakdowns in planned change efforts is the “failure to create a shared understanding among participants to produce a clear statement of the conditions of dissatisfaction for the change. Reger, Gustafson, Demarie, and Mullane (1994, in Lewis 2000:142) argue that “vision” must be not only created but also framed in such a way as to avoid being too radical: “change should proceed through mid-range modifications that motivate the organisation to change; it should not be so radical that organisational members either fail to comprehend the change or perceive it to be unacceptable”. Fairhurst (1993) noted the importance of ‘grass-roots’ involvement in creating and promoting a vision for organisational change programmes.

Concerning vision and planning, Beer and Walton (1987:365) point out that even managers struggle to follow grand plans and that change is not brought about by following a grand master plan, but by continually readjusting direction and goals. Fairhurst (1993, in Lewis 2000:146) contends that vision is not a creation born on one momentous occasion, but evolves slowly- perhaps punctuated by moments of critical significance.

4.5.3 Checking

Both sensemaking (see 4.4.3) about the mission and giving feedback to implementers are often found to be problematic in organisations (Lewis 2000:145). Lower-level employees develop their own “theories” about the purposes of the quality programmes in their organisations and express doubt about the espoused purposes of the programmes communicated to them by implementers. Reger *et al.* (1994, in Lewis 2000:145) suggest that scepticism is not rare: “organisational members are active ‘framers’ as they attempt to make sense of change using cognitive frameworks that may not match those of upper managers...”. The checking phase allows management together with the group, to review all the documents and plans before actual implementation. Last-minute concerns or developments must be taken into account and must be voiced in order to create the opportunity for evaluation of positive and negative aspects (Price & Chahal 2006:248).

4.5.4 Communications and workforce engagement

Covin and Kilmann (1990, in Lewis 2000:151) suggest that it is critical to communicate information during change. These authors found that “failure to share information or to inform people adequately of what changes are necessary and why they are necessary [was] viewed as having a highly negative impact”.

The implementation team should not only identify groups, sections or departments that the change will impact upon, but also carefully consider the impact upon individuals. To implement changes effectively, the implementation team must understand the sequence of feelings that individuals experience when confronted with change as these feelings influence their subsequent actions. When these feelings are known, they will explain a great deal of the individual’s behaviour, making implementation less unpredictable. It is essential that new channels of communication must be established and kept open to avoid isolating sections of the workforce: Everyone should have access to the team to discuss their concerns. The

implementation team should work with and alongside the employees throughout the process and not just enforce the change process. A high degree of workforce consultation and participation should start as early as possible and continue through the implementation and evaluation phase. This should reduce the amount of resistance encountered during the implementation phase (Price & Chahal 2006:248).

4.5.5 Engaging in action

Lewis and Seibold (1998, in Lewis 2000:152) propose that a communication perspective on implementation would intensify focus on the specific activities that implementers use; provide data about why implementers choose the “strategies” or activities they choose, or if they are even conscious of their “strategy” choices; and likely offer a more dynamic perspective that highlights the active agency of all organisational members during implementation – including “reinvention” (Rice & Rogers 1980) “modification” (Lewis & Seibold 1993), and resistance.

Once the change process is under way, momentum needs to be maintained by continued support from top management. The implementation team needs to portray a positive outlook, and all feedback should be relative to the plan and the final outcome. To avoid loss of credibility it is important that the team remains consistent to avoid departments or individuals feeding back that they have been treated differently. Failure of change integration due to lack of commitment and support from management must be avoided (Price & Chahal 2006: 248).

Price and Chahal (2006:248) continue that in order to ensure the successful implementation of change, full and deep-seated commitment is required. Successful implementation pays attention to sequence and timing and a determination to follow through. Implementation is often a period of doubt, but if careful planning has taken place then this step can be addressed with confidence. The implementation team must recognise that conflict and resistance to change are inevitable during any change process. Effective

dialogue and consultation during the initial stages of the change process will reduce the degree of conflict, which can be seen in a very positive way and used to constructively improve the solutions being implemented. It is essential to listen to concerns raised during the implementation phase. Many of these will genuinely be needed to be taken into account. Dealing with resistance requires recognition of the symptoms of resistance, which in the worst case could include: work slowdown; official and unofficial industrial action; gossip/rumours; refusal to learn new tasks; and disruption/sabotage. Once the resistance is recognised, the next stage is to analyse the sources of the resistance. These are usually: clash of values or interests; force of habit; fear of loss; insecurity; ignorance; peer pressure; lack of faith and/or trust in management; laziness; greater workload; feeling threatened; and poorly managed change.

Once the sources of resistance have been identified, measures can be introduced to counter the resistance (Price & Chahal 2006:249).

The three most commonly reviewed change models as identified by Stragalas (2010:31) are: (1) William Bridges' three stage model, (2) Edgar Schein's three stages in a change process model; that are applied at an organisational level, but are typically discussed at the individual or team level, and (3) the model by John Kotter; more appropriately classified as a change implementation model and which entails eight steps. It should be noted that certain elements are common in all three models (Stragalas 2010:31).

In table 4.1 a comparison between William Bridges (2003), Edgar Schein (2004), and John Kotter's (2007) change process and implementation models is supplied. The models of William Bridges and Edgar Shein are both comprised of three stages, while John Kotter presents a more elaborate model comprising eight stages. These models are described in detail in table 4.1 and 4.2.

COMPARISON OF CHANGE PROCESS AND IMPLEMENTATION MODELS		
William Bridges	Edgar Schein	John Kotter
<p>Three stages:</p> <p>Ending, Losing, Letting Go</p> <p>Neutral Zone</p> <p>New Beginning</p> <p>(Bridges, 2003)</p>	<p>Three Stages</p> <p>Unfreezing/Disconfirmation</p> <p>Cognitive Restructuring</p> <p>Refreezing</p> <p>(Schein, 2004)</p>	<p>Eight Stages</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Establish sense of urgency * Form a powerful guiding coalition * Create a vision * Communicate the vision * Empower others to act on the vision * Plan for and create short-term wins * Consolidate improvements and * Produce more change * Institutionalise new approaches (Kotter, 2007)
<p>Four rules for the New Beginning:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Be consistent * Ensure quick successes * Symbolise the new identity * Celebrate the success 	<p>Three sub-processes in Unfreezing:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Sufficient "disconfirming data" to create discomfort/imbalance * Data connected to important goals/ideals, causing "anxiety and guilt" * Psychological safety exists in sufficient form to enable problem solving and learning without loss of identity (p. 320) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Key conditions for success: * All stages are necessary (no shortcuts) * At least 75% of managers must believe the "status quo is more dangerous than the unknown" * Coalitions, in larger companies, need to be 20-50 people * Communication must be multi-channeled and continuous * Thousands of people must be willing to help with "short-term sacrifices" * Need to allow for broader job latitude * Need rewards/ performance appraisal to match new vision * Managers must be positive, visible role models * Proactive explanations made showing connections between new approaches and improved performance
<p>On simultaneous change: "The first thing ...need[ed] in order to handle non-stop organisational change is an overall design ... [where]...the various changes are integrated as component elements."</p>	<p>On Unfreezing: "...Some sense of threat, crisis, or dissatisfaction must be present before enough motivation is present to start the process of unlearning and relearning." (p.324)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Need rewards/ performance appraisal to match new vision * Managers must be positive, visible role models * Proactive explanations made showing connections between new approaches and improved performance
<p>When "no larger strategy exists" (for a rapidly developing change situation), the organisation must proactively define the "underlying common purpose" (costs, new competitor, need for agility, etc.) (p. 101)</p>	<p>On Refreezing (conditions for transformative change):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Survival anxiety or guilt must be greater than learning anxiety". * Learning anxiety must be reduced rather than increasing survival anxiety" (p. 331) 	<p>On Urgency: " Well over 50% of companies... fail in this first phase... Executives underestimate how hard it can be to drive people out of their comfort zones. [Some] become paralysed by the downside possibilities ...which often comes from having too many managers and not enough leaders. Management's mandate is to minimise risk and to keep the current system operating. Change, by definition, requires creating a new system, which in turn always demands leadership" (p.3).</p>
<p>Actions to deal with "non-stop" change include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Make transition to "change as the norm" * Clarify purpose * Rebuild trust * Unload "old baggage" <p>Sell problems, not solutions (cannot sell each change "piecemeal") (p. 106).</p>	<p>Creating Psychological Safety includes 8 conditions, such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * A compelling positive vision * Involvement of learner * Positive role models * Reward and discipline system consistent with new model (p. 332-333) <p>Based model on work of Lewin, with modification</p>	<p>Management's mandate is to minimise risk and to keep the current system operating. Change, by definition, requires creating a new system, which in turn always demands leadership" (p.3).</p>

Table 4.2: Comparison of change process and implementation models (Stragalas 2010:32)

KOTTER'S EIGHT STAGES	IMPLEMENTATION STEPS FROM OUTSIDE RESEARCH TO SUPPORT STAGES
(Kotter, 2007, p.1 table, all)	2007, p. 67-80, Cowley, 2007, p.25-30, 25-30 Choi 2006, p.24-43), Hoover, 2008, p.37-44), Leybourne, 2006, p. 73-95), (Parish et al., 2008, p. 32-52), Soltani, 2005, p. 1009-21).
Establish a sense of urgency Actions: * Analyse environment for potential crises and opportunities * Convince 75% of managers status quo is more dangerous	* Communicate specifics regarding expected results, time tables, and employee change (Cowley) * Build understanding before commitment * Break down, through language, -old models - nullify information no longer relevant or functional (Brower) * Promote, through language, disengagement from outdated commitments (Brower) * Confront "brutal facts" (Brower quoting Collins, p. 70) * Establish intellectual and emotional actualization (Hoover)
Form a powerful guiding coalition	* Signal involvement (senior leaders), including change advocacy through informal channels and deployment of resources through formal process (Cowley) * Build a "linked arm" coalition (senior leaders) (Cowley)
Create a vision Actions: * Create a vision that guides transformation * Develop strategies for turning vision to reality	* Motivate followers through empathy, envisioning, and empowerment, including establishment of high standards for performance and creative strategies for goals (Choi) * Emphasise what data is now relevant, affirm the mission, inspire energy towards that (Brower) * Establish intellectual and emotional actualisation (Brower)
Communicate a vision Actions: * Communication is multi-channeled and continuous * Coalition managers model the new behaviours/actions	* Communicate expected results in advance (Cowley) * Signal involvement (senior leaders), including change advocacy through informal channels and deployment of resources through formal process (Cowley) * Establish behavioural and perceptual actualisation (Hoover)
Empower others to act on the vision Actions: * Change or eliminate process and factors impeding transformation * Encourage risk-taking, innovation and andtion	* Signal involvement (senior leaders), including change advocacy through informal channels and deployment of resources through formal process (Cowley) * Communicate specifics regarding expected results, time tables, and employee changes (Cowley) * Recognize followers may to charismatic leaders because of sense of trust and self efficacy (Choi) * Allow and officially sanction improvisation, which can provide new ways of completing tasks when resources are in limited supply (time, materials, staffing) (Leybourne) * Build high-quality leader-member exchange relationships through increased sharing of information, mutual trust, and encouragement of employee participation (change process quality). * When there are high-quality LMX relationships, employees are receptive to change (Van Dam et al.)
Plan for and create short-term wins Actions: * Define and proactively promote visible improvement succeses * Recognise and reward employees involved	* Ensure senior manager signals are communicated in order to create sustained employee accountability (commitment to see the projects/change through) (Cowley) * Allow and sanction improvisations which can provides new ways of completeing tasks when resources are in limited supply (materials, time, staffing) (Leybourne)
Consolidate improvements and produce more change Actions: * Build on credibility from early succeses to advance more implementation plans (e.g. removing barriers, getting additional resources, etc) * Promote/hire individuals who support and can enact the vision/implementation plans * Energise the process with additional targets	* Establish and sustain key antecedents to affective commitment to change (employee engagement): positive employee-manager relationships , job motivation, and role autonomy (Parish) * Build and sustain positive leader-member exchange relationships through increased sharing of information, mutual trust., and encouraged employee participation (change process quality). (Van Dam et al.)
Institutionalise new approaches Actions: * Procatively explain connexions between new approaches and transformation succeses * Create succession plans that identify individuals who can carry the vision forward.	* Balance use between formal and informal channels necessary for sustainable accountability (Cowley) * Control management mobility to manifest benefits of organisational learning, ensure consistency in leader style and prioritization, and ensure manager manager accountability for long term outcomes (Soltani) * Clarify purpose, unload "old baggage" (past frustrations with change processes), and sell problems, not solutions (Bridges)

Table 4.3: Implementation steps, drawn from research, as associated with Kotter's 8 stages (Stragalas 2010:34)

Adhering to the steps in the abovementioned models does not necessarily guarantee organisational success. Several factors have to be taken into considerations. The following section focuses on the macro-rational and micro-emotional levels of implementation. Walker *et al.* (2007:762) refer to Bray (1994) calling for an increase in organisational change research focussing on the micro-level factors influencing change success. Similarly, Judge *et al.* (1999:107) suggested that change success may lie within the psychological predispositions of the individuals experiencing the change. In the following section the importance of the macro-rational and micro-emotional levels of change implementation will be explored.

4.5.5.1 *Macro-rational and micro-emotional engagement*

Rosseel (2005:220) postulates that it is important to distinguish between two levels of implementation: the macro-rational level and the micro-emotional level. In many cases top management is the local architect of the new structure and has been part of the change process since the very beginning. "Ownership is thus complete. The real challenge is the second wave of implementation, to achieve "buy-in" from the staff who are most affected by the changes. Rosseel (2005:220) states further that research clearly shows that the changes are not dealt with appropriately at the micro-emotional level. Not only is this level being inadequately managed, but the very fact of considering it as a second step, a next phase in time is problematic. This micro-level change management is an issue not only for higher education institutions, but also for companies and organisations worldwide. Today, both the corporate world and academe acknowledge the importance of the human aspect of a change process and they do their best to address it, but to judge from the feedback from their workforces, they do not really know how to deal with it.

Rosseel (2005:221) continues that the human side of change management is a fairly new, interdisciplinary field. It appeals to research in various domains of the human sciences, such as sociology, linguistics, applied economics,

communication, psychology and education. According to this author, the discipline of the human side of change management can definitely help to marry theory and practice. Rosseel (2005:221) has firstly identified the need for theories and models among governments, organisations and individuals. Secondly, some outstanding, well researched building –blocks already exists. One merely has to look for them in the different domains, analyse them critically and bring them together to build a unified theory of the human side of change (Rosseel 2005:222).

Rosseel (2005:228) identifies two problems in his analysis. He states that although there is agreement at the macro-rational level as far as the changes in the higher education landscape is concerned, there is definite disagreement at the micro-emotional level. This points to a serious gap in communication on the one hand and a lack of careful analysis of the real need of people involved on the other hand. This implies that the preparation and execution of the implementation phase has not been properly managed and may also affect changes still to come. What this analysis seems to suggest is that we are dealing with a mindset which simply accepts that things take their course and there is nothing much that can be done about it.

One of the reasons why the higher education landscape has changed so drastically is precisely to safeguard “some historical continuity with ‘the old’ [idea of university]”, as Visagie (2005, in Rosseel 2005:230) calls it, and try to render the university as an institution less volatile in a turbulent world.

Vervenne (2005, in Rosseel 2005:230) talks about the university as vulnerable: “Vulnerability is [...] not a weakness, but indeed offers us the possibility of changing those aspects that weaken our academic organisation.” Torfs (2005, in Rosseel 2005:230) believes that we should not accept what happens to us as something we cannot influence or change: “The key to change is an in-depth analysis, both expressing a feeling of discomfort and implicitly accepting a status question as the starting point for policy.”

Taking Drucker’s viewpoint into consideration (see 4.3.2.3), that managers maintain the status quo, but leaders take responsibility for the communication

culture, and acknowledging the importance of the micro-emotional level emphasised by Rosseel (2005), the importance of leadership communication as discussed earlier (see 4.3.3) is underlined.

4.5.6 Evaluation

The final phase in the process entails evaluation. No hard-and-fast rule for when to schedule evaluation exists. It is however recommended that enough time be allocated in order to overcome initial teething problems. It is also recommended that the planning/implementation team members are not used here as they have obvious vested interests. Middle management is in the best position to evaluate how effective changes have been. The method of evaluation needs to be agreed and the format should follow the original goals and objectives of the change. Formal reviews of the new process are an acceptable method of evaluation along with process inspections and audits. Once the evaluation process has been undertaken, it is possible to identify any problem areas that need addressing. Adjustments to the process may need to be made, and these can be introduced on a local basis and implemented by local management and future results feedback. The whole evaluation process is a continuing circle: eventually the process will become a driver for the next change (Price & Chahal 2006:249). Change suits the makers, not necessarily the people who have to deal with it at ground level. Change can be described as an attitude, a state of mind, a stance, and irrespective of the form of change opportunities and vulnerabilities are created.

4.6 CONSULTATIVE INTERVENTION

Consultation can be described as the opportunity to provide and receive information in meaningful discussion on relevant matters affecting the way things are done or managed in the workplace. The University of Adelaide, human resources information on consultation indicates that good consultation entails the following:

- Being given as much relevant information as needed to make an informed and educated choice.
- Time to fully consider the matters raised.
- Participating in discussions leading to important decisions.
- Being kept informed of discussions and decisions and being informed throughout the implementation process including any changes made.

According to the University of Adelaide, human resources information the following steps to successful consultation should also be considered:

- Being prepared to listen.
- Establishing what people understand by participation and consultation first. Consultants should establish how participants want to be consulted and how much participation they want.
- There should be commitment by all parties to communicate with each other, to listen and engage in discussion over change. Agreement that there is individual responsibility to be involved (not waiting to be asked or for the information to be sent). Being proactive is essential.
- The provision of (accurate) information through information sessions is important.
- Ensuring ownership of the process.
- Asking questions to encourage participation and feedback.
- Involving people in local workplace problem solving through small groups, brainstorming possibilities, identifying problems as this increases team involvement. Ask for their ideas, listen and rephrase. Listen for the main idea or the underlying or the underlying issue. Repeating what was said helps to clarify the discussion.
- Constantly clarify objectives.

According to Human (2005:66) consultation ensures that issues are aired, good ideas are listened to and solutions to problems or misinterpretations are

found. Consultation can also be used to tailor strategies to deal with its specific concerns and challenges. Functional or departmental plans are usually developed easier if included here. Consultation also helps to create a context in which fears and concerns can be addressed and commitment to diversity and change increased, particularly in situations where the dominant group feels threatened by the process. It also creates a forum that can put pressure on management to ensure meaningful progress. Issues can be addressed on a continuous basis rather than simply at the monitoring or evaluation stage. Effective consultation underscores the belief in the basic equality and dignity of all employees and the fact that they have the right to be respected and listened to. Effective consultation also underscores good faith and commitment to the process by top management.

4.6.1 Communication roles and responsibilities

It is impossible to separate the consultation and communication from the implementation of diversity and change, as ongoing consultation and communication are integral to the achievement of success. The following points should be taken into consideration.

- (1) If on a formal level, a consultative committee has been created within manager's functions, they need to play a visible and supportive role within the committee. Issues raised by the committee should be taken seriously, and follow up must be ensured. Managers should attend meetings and initiate personal contact with the chairperson of the committee, and advise him or her of their commitment to the consultative process. They can let the committee know that feedback from their meetings is important to them.
- (2) Less formally, managers must devote time to examining their communication style. Their commitment to diversity will be perceived and interpreted according to the ways in which they communicate with people around them.

(3) Managers need to be rigorous ensuring that information is appropriately and timeously channeled down the line. Employees tend to become demotivated when they do not receive useful information (Human 2005:85).

4.7 REASONS FOR THE FAILURE OF CHANGE

Gilsdorf (in Kitchen & Daly 2000:46) is of opinion that many mistakes in change management programmes can be linked directly to and have causal connections with, breakdowns in communication.

Despite four decades of change-management research, most large-scale change initiatives still fail to deliver on their promise, many destroying substantial corporate value in the process. One of the primary reasons is leadership behaviour (Fendt 2006:3).

Managing change successfully requires **winning employees' trust** and persuading them to believe that the changes will, in the end, be beneficial. According to Von Wartburg, (in Fendt 2006:3) change projects are a promise of a better future. Employees however, need much more time to let go of things that worked and try something new. The leaders need to create the perception that the promised future will actually materialise. For this, you need trust; you need a top executive that is credible.

Projecting credibility and inspiring trust during major upheaval can however be surprisingly difficult for some leaders according to Fendt (2006:3) who found that in organisation after organisation researched by her, that the CEO's communication style, rather than inspiring trust, hope, and optimism, instead sowed scepticism, cynicism, and pessimism. Even as some sought, with the best of intentions, to move others to change, their communication style subtly demoralised the workforce and thereby undermined their chances of success.

Senge *et al.* (1999, in Grobler & Puth 2002:22-23) suggest that the following challenges, or a combination thereof, usually occur during a change process. Change is often seen as something additional that will take up unavailable

time. People involved in change initiatives need enough flexibility to devote time to reflection and practice, change is therefore often perceived as a **challenge of time**. Another challenge that often arises mainly due to inadequate coaching, guidance, and support for innovation and development of resources that enable people to build a capacity for change (Grobler & Puth 2002:22), is the **challenge of support**.

Furthermore, the **relevance** of change is often questioned. Senge *et al.* (1999, in Grobler & Puth 2002:22) state that making a case for change and articulating an appropriate business focus, as well as showing why new efforts are relevant is a challenge. If leaders are not consistent, change will also be a **challenge of credibility**. If they are not walking the talk, and those responsible for championing the change are inconsistent, and there is a mismatch between behaviour and espoused values and no clarity or transparency others will find it hard to follow them. Fear of the unknown as well as anxiety based in concerns about exposure, vulnerability, and inadequacy accompanied by conflict between increasing levels of candour and openness and low levels of trust in the change agents can cause **severe anxiety** in employees (Grobler & Puth 2002:22-23).

Dissociation between the organisation's traditional ways of measuring success and the perceived achievements of the change process lead to **negative assessment** of the process' progress (Grobler & Puth 2002:23). The **challenge of arrogance or isolation** appears when the "true believers" within the change management group confront the "non-believers" outside the group. This often results in the rest of the organisation going into a phase of consistently misinterpreting each other. The **challenge of the prevailing governance structure**, and the conflicts between change agents seeking greater autonomy, and managers concerned about autonomy leading to what they perceive as possible chaos and internal fragmentation (Grobler & Puth 2002:23). Diffusion, the inability to transfer knowledge across organisational boundaries, makes it difficult for people around the system to build upon each other's success. **Communicating the change** can therefore also pose a challenge. Finally, the **organisational strategy and purpose** can pose a

challenge: revitalising and rethinking the organisation's intended business focus, its reason for being, its contribution to its stakeholder community, and its identity (Grobler & Puth 2002:23).

In the light of the above it is clear that the implementation of change is a complex process that is fraught with challenges. In the following section, sources of resistance to change are explored.

4.8 SOURCES OF RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

A certain amount of resistance will always be present when change is implemented. Huczynski and Buchanann (2001, in Price & Chahal 2006:243) define resistance to change as "an inability, or an unwillingness, to discuss or to accept organisational changes that are perceived in some way damaging or threatening to the individual (or group)".

The following conditions are most likely to cause this kind of behaviour, according to Williams (1989:91):

- the need for change is not recognised by those affected by it;
- there is an increase in the level of uncertainty relating to one's future job, its rewards, power and status (matters which are important to the needs of the individuals and groups); and
- the change strategy adopted fails to take sufficiently into account the conditions under which people learn and display new behaviours in the organisational setting.

It is very difficult to predict how the people involved in the change process will associate with the challenges of change and how a certain amount of change will be regarded by those affected as individuals, groups and situations differ. It is important that managers establish who will win, and who will lose by the change process as this will enable managers to predict where resistance to change will come from. However, change opponents also play an important and very often under-appreciated role. The people with day-to day knowledge, which may not be taken into consideration during the early

conceptualisation of the process, will be in a good position to challenge and hopefully improve the proposed changes (Price & Chahal 2006:243).

Dessler (1995:505) identified the following sources of resistance to change. Some of these were also identified as reasons for the failure of change:

- Habit - people become accustomed to the usual way of doing things and may resist change because they assume it is more convenient or less costly to just keep doing things the usual way.
- Resource limitations - resource limitations can put an organisation in the place where it is unable to change and compete with others in the market.
- Threats to power and influence – many see change as having diminished responsibilities for themselves and therefore lower status in the organisation. This threatens their job security. Threats to an individual's power and influence often underlie resistance to change.
- Fear of the unknown – The unknown consequences that await produce resistance to change.

Kubler-Ross (1969, in Price & Chahal 2006:242) argues that “we deal with loss and impending loss in moving through a number of stages, each characterised by a particular emotional response.”

Research on how people react to change revealed that a pattern seems to emerge. Haines (2000, in Grobler & Puth 2002:12) calls this the Rollercoaster of Change. It consists of four primary stages:

- Shock and denial
- Depression and anger
- Hope and readjustment
- Rebuilding

How people manage these reactions to change could influence their career paths: some would sabotage interventions, some will be unable to cope and will inevitably become casualties of change and unless properly managed and

assisted, only a very few will become agents of organisational change (Grobler & Puth 2002:12-13).

These emotions are indicative of how stressful people find change situations. Individuals may display some or all of the abovementioned characteristics during a time of change. It is important to note that the loss cycle does not allow for clashes and changes in values, which are an important part of the change process. Managers should take steps to avoid or at least alleviate the depression phase of the cycle, but also be able to recognise the resistance to change because overcoming resistance is central to the success of any change strategy (Price & Chahal 2006: 242-243).

4.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter it became evident that the implementation of change is a complex process. The existence of a multitude of diverse theoretical perspectives and prescriptive frameworks on change, contribute to the complexity of communicating and implementing change.

A distinction is made between the different types of change and how these changes are brought about in, and influences the organisation. Another challenge faced during the implementation of change is the use of poor and ineffective communication and a lack of acceptance by employees. Guidelines for effective communication and the difference between management and leadership as two distinct complimentary systems of action are explored, and the importance of effective leadership communication, as well as the important role of the change agent, the effective management of change, and the sensemaking role of managers in communicating change are emphasised.

The important role that consultative intervention can play during a change initiative is also considered. The chapter concludes with reasons for the failure of change, as well as the identification of sources of resistance to change.

CHAPTER 5

DATA REPORTING

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Since 2008, the UFS has attempted to integrate their junior, on-campus residences. This chapter reports on the information collected during in-depth interviews and focus group sessions held with residence management staff that were part of, or involved in the process. True to the qualitative inquiry, a broad description of each theme is provided. These themes extend into various sub-themes that emerged from the data.

The aim of this section of the study is to investigate the communication used during the process of integrating different cultures in junior female residences at the UFS. As discussed in chapter one a qualitative research approach with a grounded theory strategy was used in this study. Primary data collection was done by means of in-depth interviews and two focus group sessions. This study focuses on the Residence Heads as they reside in the residences and are in close contact with students on a daily basis. More importantly, as the highest authority in the residences, Residence Heads liaise directly with the Accommodation Services- and Student Affairs departments. They are therefore responsible for disseminating information from top management to the HC (House Committee) and House members.

5.2 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

From the ten (10) junior female residences, a sample of eight (8) Residence Heads partook in the in-depth interviews. The two Residence Heads that did not partake comprised the researcher and one other Residence Head that was not available on campus during the research.

Data gathering was done over a period of approximately three and a half months. In-depth interviews with female Residence Heads, were conducted first. Interviews ranged between 50 minutes and two hours in length and were

done at the respective residences. With the proviso that total confidentiality would be maintained, the respondents agreed that interviews could be recorded. After completion of the in-depth interviews two focus group sessions were conducted. The first focus group session, mediated by the researcher, consisted of eight female Residence Heads. The focus group session was conducted on campus and lasted about two hours. The researcher stated the reason for the focus group discussion and initiated the session with the following opening statement: Describe your experience of the communication used during the change intervention currently implemented in the UFS junior residences. The second focus group session was a feedback session mediated by an external consultant involved in the transformation process. This session lasted approximately three hours. Six male- and six female Residence Heads participated in this focus group session. Although the male Residence Heads were not included in the in-depth interview sample, they were equally involved in the residence transformation process and could also make valuable contributions. The focus group sessions were conducted as they can serve for the mutual validation of data findings as well as for the production of a more coherent and complete picture of the investigated domain than mono-method research can yield.

5.3 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

As mentioned, the number of respondents partaking in the interviews was eight (8) female Residence Heads. Two focus group sessions were also conducted. For the first focus group all female Residence Heads were invited, but only eight attended. The second focus group session was a feedback session held with the consultancy. All Residence Heads (both male and female) were invited, twelve (12), of which six were male and six were female, participated. A consultant acted as facilitator for the second focus group.

- **Ethnic groups**

The cultural division of the respondents in this study were representative of four (4) black, one (1) coloured and nine (9) white respondents. As some of the respondents took part in the interviews and focus group sessions, the total number of respondents in this study was fourteen (14).

- **Years of experience in position**

Experience of the Residence Heads varied between 20 years and 1 year of service in this specific position, with the majority of respondents having between 8 and 20 years of experience.

- **Gender**

There were six (6) male and eight (8) female respondents that were part of the interview and focus group processes.

As already stated, the research commenced with the in-depth interviews in which certain themes were identified. The in-depth interviews were followed by the focus group sessions. The main purpose of the focus groups was to increase the understanding of the main themes that surfaced during the in-depth interviews.

As the interview- and focus group respondents were drawn from the same population, some respondents were part of both data gathering activities. As the focus groups serve to enhance data gathered during the interviews, the data will be reported simultaneously and not in two different sections.

A number of constructs were identified during the focus groups sessions, but no new themes surfaced during the focus group sessions.

5.4 RESEARCH RESULTS

The coding procedure of grounded theory, namely open coding, axial coding, and selective coding was applied to the data. Six main themes which extend into sub-themes emerged from the data. The main themes identified are:

- Communication approach
- Organisational culture and climate and organisational structure
- Management of change
- Management approach and the role of leaders
- The consultative process
- The human factor

Each of these themes with their sub-themes will now be discussed in depth. Three of the themes, namely the communication approach, the management of change, and the consultative process surfaced as more prominent themes as was evident from the dataset. Themes were categorised into groups based upon the concepts (sub-themes) and constructs that evolved from the literature reviewed.

No new themes surfaced during the focus groups sessions and therefore references to respondents refer to the outcomes of the in-depth interviews. Specific reference will be made to input from focus group sessions.

5.4.1 Theme 1: COMMUNICATION APPROACH

The first main theme pertained to the role of communication in an organisation, and more specifically to respondents' experiences and perceptions of the effectiveness and efficiency of the communication between respondents and management during the implementation of the change and integration processes of the junior residences at the UFS. This theme, as already stated was perceived as one of the three more prominent themes that emerged from the dataset.

Communication is sometimes referred to as the nervous system of an organisation. According to Richardson and Denton (1996:203), communicating change is a difficult task and the failure thereof more than often due primarily because of poor communication. During the interviews, it became very clear that a serious lack of communication was experienced and according to the feedback from respondents the existing communication was of poor quality.

Responses from respondents that underline the above statement included statements like the following:

**Blocked communication channels.* This was the first remark made by the respondent when asked about the communication during the transformation process. The respondent continued: *They tell you to talk, they don't listen and they don't answer straightforward when you ask something.*

All of the respondents agreed that communication was exclusively a one-way (top-down) process and that no effective communication was taking place at any time during the process. This had serious implications for staff and student morale, as well as the implementation of the change process.

**We were tired and disheartened. You were overwhelmed by a feeling of its just no use.* This statement clearly illustrates that respondents were experiencing the communication as seriously lacking.

To explore this theme in more detail, concepts that were identified as sub-themes were further divided into constructs. A discussion of the sub-themes or concepts that evolved from the main theme, together with their constructs will now follow.

5.4.1.1 Channels of communication

In Chapter 4, (see 4.2.2.1.1) Russ (2008:201) refers to the programmatic approaches that focus on top-down dissemination of information. These approaches focus on centralised, controlled, and prescribed communication where there is little organisational participation. In contrast, in chapter 4, (see

4.3.2 and 4.3.2.3) guidelines for effective communication were discussed. These included among others the recognition of communication as a two-way process. French and Bell (1983) state that managers have to move toward a style of communicating that regards communication as a transaction, or a creation of meaning. Communication has to become a two-way, rather than one-way process if it is to be successful.

From the data it became clear that communication channels were not effective and that communication was found lacking. The information received from respondents clearly showed that there was no proper communication system in place and that different and conflicting messages were often being sent out.

- **One-way approach to communication (Top-down communication approach)**

**The council just made the decision that residence integration would take place without involving the stakeholders such as the Residence Heads (RHs), House Committee (HC) members, and Primes who were the people that had to make it work in the residences. It was regularly stated that we were being consulted, but that was not the case.*

Some of the respondents claimed that they were regularly called to meetings at the onset of the process and during the process, and asked to voice their opinions. Their unanimous experience however, was that although this was done, communication was one way communication taking the form of top-down communication. Although there was constant contact, there was no proper engagement. The following quotes from four different respondents underline the above statement.

**The decision was taken and we were informed about it.*

This statement by a respondent was echoed by all the other respondents claiming:

**In the beginning at the first integration meeting we were told what was going to happen.* Another respondent claims:

**We were told what was going to happen.* This experience of the communication is extended further in the words of the following respondent stating: *They actually just came and told us, this is the way, this is the process, and this is the way to approach it.*

As shown by the literature study in chapter 4, (see 4.3.2.2), irrespective of the channels that are chosen, the importance of regarding communication as a two-way process, is essential for effective and efficient communication.

One-sided (especially downward) communication processes, will result in communication problems, according to De Greene (1982, in Kitchen & Daly 2002:50). In chapter three, (see 3.3.2) internal communication is described as a key concept in an organisation that attempts to increase participation, increase organisational affinity, and secure widespread ownership of corporate goals (Quinn & Hargie 2004:146).

The feedback from most respondents indicated that the tone that was set by management was not perceived as positive. This sentiment was echoed by most respondents in the focus groups as well.

**You were told to give your opinion, but it wouldn't count in the end.* All the respondents indicated that serious communication problems existed between management and staff, between some of the managers, as well as between different departments.

It is evident from the data that all the respondents were of opinion that there was not enough or hardly any consultation at all, and that communication exclusively took the form of downward communication.

- **Lack of bottom-up communication**

To support the previous concept, the data collected in this study suggest that no attention was paid to communication from respondents. Although it was widely publicised in the media, and constantly said on campus that consultation had taken place, with the exception of one respondent, all others felt that their inputs received no attention, had no value, and what was

suggested by them, were not being listened to. This aspect was also emphasised strongly during both focus group sessions.

As already stated, effective communication is regarded as a two-way process. It is indicated in chapter four (see 4.3.3.1.8) that listening is an essential part of the communication process. Brown (2009:8) states that truly effective communication involves more than just expressing yourself clearly, it also requires effective listening (see 4.3.3.1.8). Respondents reported unanimously that this was not the case. One said: *Whatever we said in meetings were heard by them, but not listened to.* Another respondent replied: *There was no upward communication or the upward communication that took place was not listened to. The channels were blocked and we were being treated very autocratically.*

The gathering of information from staff members and paying attention to input from ground level staff plays an important part in the success of the internal communication in any organisation. In chapter three (see 3.3.2) it is argued by Hargie and Tourish (1993) that the quality of the communication in an organisation is a crucial variable in determining the success of the organisation. It is obvious from the above that successful internal communication can never be a one-sided affair.

As stated by the following respondent: *You could give your opinion and it wouldn't count in the end.*

According to the data, a feeling of frustration and desperation were experienced among most respondents. This statement is illuminated by the following respondents.

**Students from all the different cultural groups in my residence told me that they felt that management was not at all listening to their pleas and requests. Once again there were many meetings, but no resolve or improvement in the end. The feeling of desperation grew.*

Another respondent shares the same sentiment by stating: *During 2008 there was a strike by all the HC members and a lot of damage was done. The*

reason for this was because students from all the different cultural groups felt that management was not at all listening to what was asked by them.

- **Absence of lateral communication**

Lateral communication assists with task co-ordination, problem solving, information sharing, conflict resolution, and building rapport and can be a valuable asset for getting work done (Harris & Nelson 2008:215). From the data it seems as if this did not happen. **There was no communication between Student Affairs and Accommodation Services and both expected certain things from us.*

The absence of lateral communication in an organisation is obviously an area of concern as it directly affects the integration of activities between departments.

5.4.1.2 Isolated functioning

In chapter 3 (see 3.3.2.1) it is stated that different departments in organisations often grow and move further apart and this results in fragmented, redundant and even contradictory communication and messages. Absence of lateral communication between departments (as referred to above) can therefore lead to inefficiency and misunderstanding, which in turn can lead to loss of credibility and wasted resources. This is also referred to as a silo approach, where each department functions in isolation, like an “island”.

- **Silo approach to communication**

The majority of the respondents claimed that they regularly received conflicting messages. The main reason for this was because Residence Heads and HC's as a team reported to two different departments, namely the Student Affairs Department and the Accommodation Services department.

According to five of the respondents, communication between these two departments was poor.

**There was absolutely no communication between the different departments. Each manager did what he wanted, each went his own way.*

**There was no proper communication system or channels in place and different messages were sent out.*

The fact that different departments were not communicating enough with one another had to effect that they were not aware of what other departments were planning and doing. It is clear from the research that, what was being planned by different departments was not being aligned with the organisations vision and mission. This silo approach to communication and functioning of departments in isolation had a negative impact on the implementation of the change process in so far as information and messages that went out were often not streamlined. Different expectations were also voiced.

**Because we reported to two departments, we often received conflicting messages. This was sometimes very confusing.*

Communication during a change intervention is very challenging. The effective management of areas where more control can be yielded, such as the communication of uniform messages is essential.

- **No consultation**

In the literature study in chapter 4 (see 4.3.3.1.8) it has been indicated that communication should be regarded as a two-way process that involves active listening. Baldoni (2004:23) states that it is often said that managers do not listen. It is only by listening to others that managers can really know what is going on in the organisation. Good leaders, according to Baldoni (2004), should consider listening to be an action step.

**We knew what was expected of us, not because we were consulted but because it was forced on us. HC members were 'consulted' as well, but this was also forced.*

**RH's are not consulted. We are usually told what to do by people who have no understanding of the residences or their functioning. Or we hear what is going to happen, not even always through official channels.*

It surfaced very clearly during the focus group sessions, as well as from the interview respondents that they felt that they were not consulted, but that information was just being given through to them and this created a lot of frustration and a communication climate that was not conducive to effective communication. Pascoe and More (2008:76) state that a supportive communication climate is one that reduces perceptions of threat. In contrast, a defensive communication climate is one that produces perceptions of threat or anticipation of threat (see 3.3.4.2). Verwey and Du Plooy-Cilliers (2003:135) concur stating that defensive communication climates are typical of autocratic organisations, while supportive communication climates are characterised by openness, and loyalty (see 3.3.4.2). Except for one respondent, all the other respondents felt unsafe in their communication environment. The larger majority of these respondents reported that they did not at all feel free to voice their honest opinions. One respondent seemingly differed, but contradicted herself when stating the following:

**I felt I could say what was needed to be said. I think the platform was open enough, but it did not create opportunity for things to happen. Residence Heads started getting emotional because we talked but nobody listened to us. We never got anywhere.*

5.4.1.3 No feedback

Baldoni (2004:23) indicates that amplifying the leader's message depends on sharing efforts with other people. Leaders, according to this author must inform, involve, and ignite. The assumption that once the message is told, the communication work is done is far removed from the truth. Constant and regular feedback is needed (see 4.3.3.1.7).

In chapter 4 (see 4.3.2) guidelines for effective communication is supplied and the fact that communication should allow for open dialogue is emphasised.

It was also reported during both focus group sessions that one of the biggest problems in the system was the fact that staff members were not always informed of what was going to happen in the organisation. The fact that no attention was being paid to feedback by management and that respondents felt that they were not being heard or listened to, had a serious impact on some of the respondents and their morale. This caused them not to buy into the change process. A relationship of trust was not established. These respondents felt that they had no one they could turn to if they were in need of support. Duck (2001) states that it is very important to keep stakeholders informed as rumours and misleading information often circulate during times of change (see 4.3.3.1.6).

As the following respondent states: *Change decisions were not communicated to us. We often asked that the communication system should be revised and that attention should be given to communication, but this never happened.*

Another view explains: *They never listened to us and they also never gave feedback.*

The replies given by the respondents indicated that they lost their openness and they shut down during the process, as they did not feel free to speak.

**We felt demoralised and abused and felt that we were not getting anywhere. We constantly had to implement one change after the other and we never got feedback, or positive feedback. We just always received negative feedback and criticism.*

- **Disregard for input**

It was reported that “countless” reports and suggestions had to be handed in to management staff and that Residence Heads and Primaria never got feedback concerning their inputs. All the respondents agreed that they never received any feedback on reports that were written or submitted, as stated by the following respondents.

**Nobody ever took the trouble to listen and give us feedback. Whatever we proposed or submitted was not heard about again. Feedback was just never given. There was no progress.*

**We had to do the same things over and over again. We just never got anywhere. Reports about the same thing were requested often more than once, but never did we receive any feedback.*

5.4.1.4 Quality of communication

The literature study in chapter three (see 3.3.2.1) indicates that many difficulties which result in communication problems within organisations are cited by De Greene (1982, in Kitchen & Daly 2002:50). Problems such as one-sided (especially downward) communication processes, suppression of information, errors in the facts being communicated, the grapevine and rumour mill, purposeful distortion, and the fact that receivers may misinterpret given information purposefully, or simply not listening to communication. All of these have an impact on the quality of the communication as well.

Klein (1996) argues that both the content and the media of communication will need to be flexed as the change programme moves through the different stages, if not, the programme is likely to become increasingly inappropriate over time (see 4.3.2.2). One of the respondents indicated that the quality of the communication that was sent to parents was not appropriate as it did not supply enough information, and according to most of the respondents from one of the focus groups, it did not focus on essential information and was not user friendly.

- **Standard of communication to parents and other stakeholders**

According to the input received from respondents, Residence Heads and HC members often had to phone students at the onset of the integration process. Especially first generation students' parents did not understand the communication being sent to them by the UFS at all. In the historically "white"

residences these students were phoned and basic information to allay their fears supplied to them. No provision was made from the university's side to assist at all. It was stated that Residence Heads had often in the past asked for a revision of the communication being sent to parents and students regarding their stay in the residences, but to no avail. According to the respondents this information was not relevant and user friendly. According to most respondents, the university's communication to the community was not good enough. Two of the respondents experienced parents putting their child on a bus without money or food because they thought that food was being supplied at the residence. Residence Heads and HC members then had to deal with these situations without any support from management. Half of the respondents claimed that one of the big problems that especially Residence Heads from previously black residences encountered was that there was very poor communication between the Accommodation Services Department of the university and first year student placements. White students arrived at a residence in which the student demographic constituted only black students, and they were not informed beforehand that they would be one of two or three white students placed in a predominantly black residence. On the other hand, white residences experienced that some black students arrived at their residences without any knowledge of the functioning of the residence and what was needed by them to reside on campus. Residences did send out information booklets but these were not always received by the students. A few of the respondents had to phone all students that had been placed in their residences and supply the necessary information telephonically. This was all done on the account of the residence.

As put by the following respondents: *The communication from the university's side was so poor. Most of these students that we had to integrate into our residences (that were predominantly white at the time) did not understand the communication that the university sent to them.*

**The university's communication to the community was and still is not good enough.*

All respondents stated that much of the information that was needed by parents and first years was supplied to them by the residence. One of the respondents mentioned that the communication going to students seeking accommodation in residences that are supplied by the UFS is *broad and not very insightful*.

Fielding (2005:4) states that all organisations regard communication as essential for survival (see 3.4.1). Communication with stakeholders and clients are therefore of great importance for relationship building.

- **No retrospective communication**

One of the respondents stated that there was no retrospective communication.

**Questions like where the process went wrong, or how it could be improved, or what could be learned from problems that were encountered were just never asked.*

The literature (see 4.2.2) refers to Mintzberg and Waters (1985) highlighting the fact that in a world of increasing interdependence and rapid change, it is no longer possible for managers and leaders to figure out complex situations from the top. Philosophies such as wholeness, as well as methods such as dialogue and sensemaking become increasingly relevant when dealing with the chaotic demands of team and group learning (Wheatley 2006; Bohm 1980 & Weick 1995).

- **Lack of interpersonal communication**

Interpersonal communication was reported to be poor and respondents felt that they were often treated rudely when they asked questions that were perceived as being “against the system”. Some respondents were called in on an almost daily basis by one of the managers who requested input from them. With the exception of two respondents, they all reported that they did not feel free to speak or give their honest input. Most respondents reported

that there was no understanding from management's side and that some managers *often reprimanded or cut you down when you went against their will.*

Management was perceived as very unapproachable by the vast majority of respondents. In an organisation, a great deal of communication is interpersonal. As stated earlier by Fielding (2005), this type of communication calls for good listening, sensitivity to non-verbal messages/communication and tolerance (see 3.3).

Responses included: *They did not communicate with us. They did not understand us. The communication between us and them wasn't effective.*

It was stated very clearly by the following respondent that staff and students were extremely dissatisfied with the state of affairs.

**We got sick and tired of filling in forms and writing reports and nothing ever changed or improved.*

**Later on I felt that I had no input to give and could not make a valuable contribution. They make you feel as if you are negative and against the process if you dared ask about things that you were uncertain about or was not sure what they wanted or expected of you.*

5.4.1.5 Inconsistent messages

Bratton and Gold (1999) identified several internal communication obstacles (see 3.3.2.1) in chapter 3. One of these obstacles identified by them is the fact that messages and actions are often inconsistent. In Chapter 4 (see 4.5.) it was indicated that the first and most critical phase in the change process enables change managers to assess the nature and direction of the change and requires establishment of a preparation team to co-ordinate the first step. To avoid feelings of mistrust and resentment which are the fundamental ingredients of resistance, it is essential for managers to ensure that they act fairly toward everyone. Transparency is essential and certain groups or individuals should not be highlighted; this may cause unnecessary duress

before the workforce has been fully consulted and the full nature of the change process decided upon. Listening to the workforce during the initial phase demonstrates respect and is a powerful tool to build self-esteem during potentially turbulent times (Price & Chahal 2005:247).

- **No transparency and no open communication**

**There was no transparency. Many decisions that had to be implemented with difficulty by Residence Heads could not be explained by management. Questions concerning issues were not answered. This opinion of a disgruntled Residence Head was echoed by most of the other respondents.*

Most of the respondents from the focus groups concurred and felt that questions asked by them were hardly ever answered directly. These respondents replied that their questions were never answered to satisfaction. They perceived that if the questions were being answered, the conversation was usually steered into a different direction and no direct answers were given. Most of these respondents felt that they never received an answer and was always left in the dark.

The respondents also stated that it was sometimes said by management that they *“could not comment on that”*. Another way that questions were addressed was by either answering them rudely or unfriendly. This is obvious from the following opinion from a respondent: **Communication from management’s side was not transparent. When questions were asked by us, they were either being answered rudely or unfriendly and we never received a direct or straight answer.* The above statement was also echoed by most of the focus group session respondents. It is an indication that serious communication problems existed. A relationship of trust could also not be established under these circumstances.

As put by one respondent:

**We were walking on egg shells and you were nervous the whole time in case you did something that was not right, but you actually weren't exactly sure what the right thing was.*

**This created a lot of stress for me. I want to know exactly what is expected from me and I want to function in a system with a plan, otherwise I feel very unsafe.*

In chapter 4 (see 4.3.3.1.10) the importance of informing employees exactly what will change and how these changes will take place is highlighted. Lewis *et al.* (2006:126) states that tasks, responsibilities and roles should be clarified and stakeholders must be given as much information as possible as early as possible.

5.4.2 Theme 2: ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND CLIMATE, AND ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

Jandt (2004), states that culture is a set of values, goals and priorities that is encouraged through the policies and procedures of an organisation. Saeed (2005:274) adds to this by stating that managers should take responsibility for institutionalising cultural diversity as the main ethos and guiding principle within their organisation so that organisational processes, policies and practices reflect cultural diversity in every conceivable way (see 3.3.4).

Acknowledgement of all cultures as important and equal is important for successful diversity implementation in an organisation. Managers have the responsibility to treat all cultures as equal and act fairly towards all the different cultures in an organisation. The establishment of good relationships, understanding and acceptance between people from different cultural groups should be one of the main areas of focus when implementing change. Excellent organisations gear decisions and actions to needs of customers; in these organisations, people are regarded as important. A strong organisational culture demonstrates a strong and unifying corporate philosophy and mission (see 3.3.3.1).

5.4.2.1 *Defensive organisational climate*

Autocratic organisations that are more closed and rigid and focus on problem solving and conflict, the formulation of rules, policies and systems and in which members are forced to complete certain actions are seen as having defensive communication climates (see 3.3.4.2). It is also important to refer to the emotional dimension that was discussed in chapter 4 (see 4.5.5.1), as the impact that the organisational climate has on individuals cannot be ignored.

Responses from respondents indicated that they experienced the organisational climate as extremely defensive. Responses included statements such as:

**We were being treated very autocratically.*

**There was nowhere we could turn. Nobody we could trust for assistance.*

**They undermined our authority.*

**We were not free to say exactly what we felt, believed, or wanted.*

It is evident from the above statements that were echoed by most of the respondents, that they did not feel nurtured and safe in their environment.

Organisations with defensive organisational climates usually do not value the importance of input from employees and usually employs a top-down approach to management. This is also evident in the decision making processes.

- **Rigid decision making**

Although, as stated earlier in this chapter, the message that went out to the media was that the integration of the campus was based on a process of consultation and collaboration; this is not the way it was perceived by the respondents.

One of the respondents illuminates the above by stating: *From the start we were just informed what was going to happen. Management's view of*

consultation is: we meet and we inform you what is going to happen. This view was also voiced by most respondents from the focus group sessions.

The importance of stakeholder representation during a change process, as well as inclusion of a wide range of stakeholders, including a cross section of the entire workforce is essential as indicated by Price and Chahal (2006) in chapter 4 (see 4.5).

- **Reciprocal distrust**

It became apparent from the data that a strong feeling of distrust towards management was experienced by almost all of the respondents taking part in this study. It was also apparent that respondents perceived that they were being distrusted by management and being treated in ways that made them feel that their honesty, credibility and trustworthiness were being questioned. As discussed earlier in chapter 3 (see 3.3.4) the culture of an organisation influences employee behaviour and performance (Werner 2007:27). The feeling of mutual distrust could therefore be seen as having a negative influence on employee performance.

The following responses clearly show the intense feelings that respondents had about this issue.

**There is no mutual trust. There is no trust. We as RH's are being treated like the enemy.* This statement was elaborated on during a focus group session with a respondent stating that:

Our opinions were constantly requested, but they were also distrusted. We were treated as if we would deliberately do something wrong. The situation is extremely unpleasant and stressful.

**There was no one you could trust and no one to cover your back if by accident you did make a mistake.*

It was also stated by respondents from both the focus group sessions that:
There is a lot of distrust. There is no relationship of mutual trust between us and management.

A positive organisational culture has been described as one in which employees support senior management and the relationship between employees and senior management is good (see 3.3.4). From what have been stated by the respondents, it is clear that serious attention needed to be paid to the relationship between management and staff.

According to Clappitt (2005:50), excellent organisations are motivating because of their organisational cultures. When an organisation espouses one philosophy but practices another, employees become disheartened and disillusioned. In chapter 3 (see 3.3.4) it is further stated that the organisational culture essentially provides a unique point of commonality and identity and distinguishes employees from those in other organisations.

Responses from some participants to the study did however imply the contrary.

**I have very little trust in top management. We cannot count on management at all.*

An important point that was raised is the fact that respondents often heard important information that was directly linked to their jobs and responsibilities, from outside sources or other sources on campus. This had a very negative effect on the building of a relationship of trust, as well as on the morale of the staff. Situations such as staff members learning from students that their contracts were going to be terminated were experienced very negatively by all the respondents.

Two elements of organisational culture that proved to be problematic were recognised by many of the respondents as firstly, the fact that decisions were taken and staff members or student leaders just informed, and secondly the fact that there was hardly ever proper feedback. As stated by the following respondents.

Even with this (decisions) there is no feedback. Not receiving feedback from management is something that has gone on for a very long time. We were always in the dark and waited for the next surprise.

Many respondents referred to the fact that double standards prevailed. According to these respondents this created a feeling of uneasiness among colleagues. This was also stressed by most respondents to the focus group sessions.

**I started to feel that there was no trust between staff and management and that there was also no trust between colleagues anymore.*

It is clear from the above statements that a serious lack of understanding and trust existed between the different parties involved with the integration process.

5.4.2.2 Stultifying context

Climates in organisations can range from nurturing to stultifying. In a stultifying organisational context (described in chapter 3, see 3.3.4.2) employees feel threatened and unsafe.

According to the data the divisions under investigation showed clear signs of a stultifying climate. The following constructs support this assumption.

- **The role of politics on campus**

Two different dimensions of politics are being discussed here. Firstly, the role of party politics will be discussed as it was evident from respondent's feedback that strong opinions and feelings existed about this. The role of organisational and office politics will then also be discussed. As stated by Fimbel (1994:7) in chapter 3 (see 3.4.1) the workplace is described as essentially political by many scholars. Jackall (1998:11) concurs and states that individual interests can be advanced or retarded within an organisation. Political behaviour occurs when a person behaves outside the legitimate, recognised power system in order to benefit the individual or a subunit at the expense of the organisation in general (Gibson *et al.* 1988:353).

During the focus group discussions, party politics were identified as playing a large role on campus. The respondents unanimously agreed that the political

influence was hindering the establishment of a healthy climate on campus. All of the respondents indicated that the political situation on campus negatively impacted racial relations between students. As stated in chapter 2, party politics had always played a large role on campus. Especially SASCO (The South African Student Civic Organisation) and the Freedom Front Plus (FF+) were prominent on campus. All of the respondents were of opinion that management and the UFS campus were too politically inclined. To quote only a few of the opinions raised about the political situation on campus:

**Politics are a very negative element on campus. There is a lot of pressure on the students from political parties. This causes a lot of hatred among students and many problems in the residences.*

Another respondent replied: *Because I am not a very politically inclined black person, I never felt I could say exactly what I felt.*

**Politics should be removed from campus. Political issues divide students and flares hatred. The SRC should not be politically based. They should be there for students and not do what their political parties require of them.*

Concerning management's approach toward the political situation on campus the following:

**The students should be encouraged to stay together and not be driven apart because of some political agenda. Politics plays an enormous role on campus. I perceive it as being very negative. It drives the students away from one another and incites hatred.*

**The political element on campus is very negative. It is SASCO versus the Freedom Front and this leads to a lot of tension between the different races. I think that politics should be removed from campus. If there is less political interference there will be much less tension between different racial groups and relationships will not be affected so negatively.*

It is obvious from the above statements that the political situation is a cause of serious concern as far as the integration process is concerned.

5.4.2.3 *Emotional issues*

The importance of participation and collaboration during the implementation of change has been stressed on more than one occasion. In chapter 4 (see 4.5.4) the importance of management's support is described as one of the guidelines for successful change management.

Two important terms that are related and that are essential to consider when communicating organisational change are complexity and uncertainty. Bolding and Gosling (2006:146) state that leaders make sense of the complexity and uncertainty by emotionally engaging others (see 4.4.3). The need for communication instead of information, as well as involvement in participative decision making in the organisation is highlighted (see 4.4.1).

Most of the respondents used strong terms such as "frustration", "desperation", and "despondency" to indicate the emotions that they experienced during the change process. The emotional aspect is discussed in full as one of the elements of the main theme; the human factor. It is however also applicable to this theme.

One of the respondents describes the feelings experienced as follows.

**We often felt disheartened, even depressed. There was just no hope.*

Another responded stated:

**Many and I mean many meetings were held, constant repetition of the same questions occurred and no answers could be given to urgently pressing matters. There was no progress, no progress at all. I experienced intense frustration the whole time. The situation really seemed hopeless.*

The above statement also implies that support from management's side was lacking.

**I had no hope that anything would turn out well and working conditions were extremely unsatisfactory.*

This point is discussed further at point 5.3.6 under the Human Factor.

5.4.2.4 Training and retraining

Senge *et al.* (1999) state that some of the reasons for the failure of change are a lack of coaching, guidance and support for innovation and development, as this enable employees to build a capacity for change (see 4.7).

In chapter 3 (see 3.3.4) Clampitt (2005:50) referred to the fact that the greatest motivator for employees is when they believe in what they are doing and what the company does and stands for. When a company espouses one philosophy but practices another its employees become disheartened and disillusioned.

- **Standard of training presented**

Respondents felt that their ability and intelligence were being disregarded. With the exception of one (1) respondent, it was evident that the training provided to them was not of a standard applicable to people in a professional capacity. This was also the case with the training provided to the HC members. According to the data, training sessions arranged for staff members and House Committee members were of a very poor standard. As these sessions were compulsory, it often led to great frustration among respondents. Respondents also replied that their repeated pleas for training programmes that would benefit HC members in the execution of their particular HC portfolios were never adhered to.

**The training that was provided was also never of a good standard. I had to handle many conflict situations between different race groups on my own without any support or training.*

Respondents indicated their intense disappointment and unhappiness about the standard of training programmes provided to them.

Another issue that came to light was that new staff members were not trained for the job they had to perform. They also received no training or guidance from the UFS's side. Many of them felt that they were thrown in at the deep end and had to find their own way.

**The newly appointed Residence Heads received no training and also no support for running a residence. Difficult situations arose in residences because of many decisions taken by management. These situations in residences called for the RH to intervene in the difficult situations. Some of the newly appointed Residence Heads were very young and did not always have the skill to deal with these situations.*

One of the respondents expressed her experience as follows: *I was new when this process of integration started, and had only started working here. I felt very lost and confused. I did not see a plan or planning. I did not receive any training. You had to find out things for yourself.*

- **Not responsive to client's needs**

In chapter 3 (see 3.2) it is stated that for organisations to survive, grow and prosper in a rather unpredictable context, they have to be environmentally sensitive and aware in order to remain aligned or “in fit” with environmental change and with the expectations of all stakeholders. If not, it is generally argued that the increasing disparity between organisation and environment will lead to potentially disastrous consequences. Organisations should therefore be able to continuously change in their ways of functioning. This in turn requires constant analyses and sharing of information with stakeholders inside and outside the organisation. Sensitivity to the needs of all stakeholders is therefore self-evident.

**Changes were made everywhere and we had to enforce or manage them and convey the messages to unhappy students that felt everything that was important to them was being taken away from them, and not replaced by better ideas.*

Changing the organisational structure and culture can consume a considerable amount of time and resources (see 4.5.1). An understanding of why the current processes and culture exists is therefore essential to enable organisations to plan how to leave their present state and assess more

realistically what should happen and what the knock-on effects are (Williams 1989:57).

As indicated by the literature study in chapter 3 (see 3.3.4) corporate and organisational cultures are unique cultures that provide a stimulus for employees for behaving in ways unique to the organisation. Culture also has symbolic significance and surfaces in observable ways such as language, behaviour and things that people find significant. The culture of an organisation has an enduring quality and is not easily changed (Lundberg 1990). Most change literature does however suggest that changing the organisational culture should be the first step in any change intervention.

5.4.2.5 Silo approach

It was not only Residence Heads that were disregarded, it also became clear from the data that serious difficulties were experienced with communication between departments. Some statements from respondents to support this claim include:

**There is absolutely no communication between the different departments, no communication, and no collaboration.*

**The communication between departments was not sufficient and this also impacted the input that was requested from us.*

**Departments were not communicating with each other.*

The fact that conflicting messages were received from different departments caused a lot of confusion and frustration among staff members.

- **Functioning in isolation**

As stated in theme one, (Communication Approach), the data indicated that the different departments functioned in isolation and the one did not know what the other was doing or expecting from employees. In chapter 3 (see 5.3.1.3) this aspect is highlighted. This functioning in isolation of different

departments in an organisation is referred to in the literature as a silo approach. As stated by the following respondent:

**Different departments also sometimes gave conflicting messages. This because the one department was not aware of what the other was doing. They did not communicate.*

During the focus groups it was emphasised by most respondents that they constantly asked that attention should be paid to the communication between the different departments, but that this was to no avail.

5.4.2.6 Lack of resources

It is indicated by Grobler and Puth (2002:22) in chapter 4 (see 4.4.2) that the increasing scarcity of resources will put pressure on managers to examine their performance using resources wisely. Accountability in management ranks requiring demonstrated results will continue and intensify.

In the literature study (see 4.7) it is further stated that a challenge that often arises during a change initiative is the development of resources that enable people to build a capacity for change (Grobler & Puth 2002:22). When there is no support in this area for employees, the implementation of change becomes all the more difficult. This is elaborated upon further in chapter 4 (see 4.8) where resource limitations are described as being able to put an organisation in the place where it is unable to change and compete with others in the market.

All the intended changes required that certain resources had to be made available to residences at the onset of the integration process. According to the respondents applications for resources could be submitted, but a year into the process, nothing had been received. The respondent reported that certain resources were needed to accommodate the students that were placed in their residences, but management supplied no support.

**Some of the first generation students' parents had no idea what residence life entailed. On more than one occasion students arrived at our residence*

without any money or food as their parents thought that the food was supplied at the residences. We then had to help these students from our 'huiskas' (residence/house money). They needed residence T-shirts and many other things which we supplied them with. Management was not supplying anything.

Respondents further reported that they sometimes had to go to great lengths to assist students and that management never considered all the practical implications that changes had on the residences. All the practical implications had to be dealt with in the residence by the Residence Heads and the House Committees.

5.4.3 Theme 3: MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE

Identifying the need for organisation wide change and leading organisational change is described by Stripeikis and Zukauskas (2005) as one of the most challenging and critical responsibilities of leadership in the 21st century. Lewis (2000) states that the most frequently noted categories of problems encountered when implementing planned change were the communication of the vision and negative attitudes encountered. The success of implementation is generally associated with those who facilitate the process (see 4.5.2).

Organisational change is a process and not an event. This process is continuous. Thaspia (1990:15) describes organisational change as a participative and consultative process. Burnes (1992) also reinforces the importance of worker participation, and states that managers must together with those closely affected, establish structures and practices necessary to operate effectively under conditions which prevail at any particular moment (see 4.5).

The following concepts, with their related constructs evolved from this main theme.

5.4.3.1 *Non consultation*

This particular sub-theme was also addressed as the main theme of communication approach under the sub-theme, functioning in isolation (5.3.1.2). It was however also identified as a sub-theme of this particular main theme as the consultative process plays a major part in change management.

The literature study shows in chapter 4, (see 4.5.4) that for the successful implementation of change initiatives a high degree of workforce consultation and participation should start as early as possible and continue through the implementation and evaluation phase (Price & Chahal 2006). This issue was also emphasised during the focus group sessions by all the respondents. The following statements from respondents give an indication of how the consultation process was perceived by them.

**Media reports regularly referred to the consultation process that was going on at the UFS campus. This was however not the truth.*

Another respondent opined: *It was said that we had been consulted, but that was not the case. We did not know where these plans for the transformation process came from.*

5.4.3.2 *Direction provided by leadership*

It is clearly stated in the literature study that during organisational change employees must be informed what exactly will change, how these changes will take place, and how the changed organisation will face the future. The success of change initiatives in organisations depends on the capabilities of managers to enable the workforce to implement the changes (see 4.4). If the direction of the change is not communicated with relevant stakeholders, the process is deemed to fail.

Carnall (2003) postulates in the literature study that authentic communication involves the communication of clear objectives, consistency of messages, especially under the conditions of change, as well as ensuring that others

understand and are aware of the reasons and intentions of the change (see 4.3).

The feedback received from the respondents suggests that they experienced the process as unplanned and inconsistent. Many respondents also claimed that they had experienced management as being openly one-sided and biased. This point was also emphasised in the focus group sessions. It was clearly stated in chapter 4 (see 4.5.1) that it is very important to treat all employees in such a manner that they feel they are all being treated as equals. The feedback from the data indicates that certain individuals felt that some individuals and groups were being treated differently to others. These remarks paved the way for the following aspect, namely inconsistency.

- **Attention to planning**

A lack of attention to planning was illustrated by the following: *I did not see a plan or planning. As Residence Head of a black residence, I phoned the white students on the placement list, but 90% said they weren't coming. There should have been proper planning. I felt as if the whole process was just jumped into without consideration beforehand. This was during the first two years, 2008 and 2009.*

**Management did not come and tell us what their plan was. They had no predetermined structure or plan or information that they supplied us with.*

The data suggests that respondents felt unsafe in their environment and a feeling of desperation started to develop. As stated in the literature study (see 4.5.2), during implementation, the designs, ideas and visions that were put in place by the organisation are put to work (see 4.5). It is essential to develop a vision and implementation plan, as they supply direction and will give a feeling of the nature of the change.

- **Crisis management**

Price and Chahal (2006:247) state the implementation team's first task is to define a change vision, and once this has been defined the group must create as many change strategy options as possible to achieve this vision. They state further that it must always be remembered that there are several paths to every target (see 4.5.2). Some of the respondents reported that they were constantly busy managing crisis situations. They reported as follows:

**Plans that were not well thought through and did not work had to be managed and salvaged by the Residence Heads, Primes and House Committees. We were constantly being subjected to crisis management. The stress levels just went up and up because there was never any resolve.*

**We were subjected to crisis management the whole time. When the crisis hit, everything was blown apart and then there was a fixation with that one thing again for months and months, and no moving forward. We were the people that had to deal with these crises in the residences.*

Another respondent stated:

**It was more a process of wait for the next crisis and then this crisis pulls everything apart again. Then we have to do crisis management all over again.*

The majority of the respondents reported that they were constantly experiencing fear and stress and waiting for the next problem to arise. It is perceived from the feedback that these situations created extremely poor working conditions where a lot of stress prevailed.

During the checking phase of change implementation, management together with the workforce are allowed to review all the documents and plans before actual implementation. During this phase positive and negative aspects should be addressed (see 4.5.3). It is obvious from the feedback that this phase was not implemented and no review of implementation plans and documents took place beforehand.

- **Repetition of activities without progress**

The respondents from the focus group sessions reported unanimously that there was constant repetition of the same activities. The following statements by the respondents enhance the above:

**Because they never listened to us in meetings, we were constantly requested to repeat reports and other tasks that actually required the same input. It was so very frustrating. We never got anywhere.*

In chapter 3 (see 3.3.2.1) Bratton and Gold (1999) identified obstacles regarding internal communication. One of the points referred to by them is the fact that it is important for management to take responsibility for devising and maintaining the communication system of the organisation.

5.4.3.3 *The role of leaders*

Bolden and Gosling (2006:156) state that the sense-making role of leaders require them to make sense of complexity and uncertainty on the basis of strong moral beliefs. Managers must also be able to engage emotionally with others (see 4.4.3).

**The relationship between management and the Residence Heads was one of two worlds that were miles apart and did not link at any place. If they had listened to residence heads and students, I am sure that we would have been much further in the process.*

Another respondent stated: *In the beginning I asked a lot of questions, but received no help or assistance.*

Bridges and Mitchell (2002, in Lewis *et al.* 2006:122) claimed that leaders can help to better manage the change process by reiterating the purpose, picture, plan and part employees should play in moving the organisation forward. Having a clear vision is necessary for getting others on board (see 4.3.3.1.1).

- **Lack of leadership support**

Price and Chahal (2006:248) is of opinion that the momentum in a change process is maintained by continued support from management and that the failure of a change initiative due to lack of support and commitment from management must be avoided at all costs (see 4.5.5). Disgruntled respondents reported as follows regarding their perceptions of leadership support:

**I and my HC got no support. We were left with the problems, problems that arose from decisions that were made by management.*

**We were the unfortunate people who had to deal with very upset and dissatisfied students in the residences. We were also the people that had to deliver all the bad news and continuous changes to the disgruntled students. Management never visited the residences during this time.*

- **Relationship of trust**

As already stated, leaders communicate not only information but also attitudes and assumptions. In any leadership situation the values to be gained and the merits of certain courses of action are either clearly stated or implied (see 4.3.3.1). The literature study indicates further (see 4.3.3.1) that leadership is a matter of co-operation, and that the quality of the co-operation that leaders are able to establish between themselves and the workforce is indicative of their success.

**We were constantly just being plunged into the process and then, without any help from management, had to swim.*

**Time and again we were thrown into the deep end without any help or guidance.*

The above information clearly shows that there was no relationship of trust between management and the workforce, and this also meant that the workforce was not managed as a team. Ultimately this also had implications for relationships between colleagues.

Many of the respondents felt that the way in which management behaved brought separation between the different cultural groups on the staff complement. The conditions that they created were not conducive to implementing integration. This was also reflected in the organisational culture.

- **Non transparent**

Changes in the workplace often present serious challenges for the employees. The implementation of change, according to Kotter (2007) is a planned process that requires proper evaluation beforehand, followed by a planned process where stakeholders are constantly being informed about what is going to happen (see 4.5.5).

**There was no transparency. There never was any transparency and this made me feel very unsafe.*

The above statement was echoed by almost all the respondents. It seemed as if there was no relationship of trust between management and the respondents. The literature clearly states that the establishment of a relationship of trust is essential for the implementation of any change programme as the employees in the different departments are responsible for ensuring that the changes are implemented (see 4.5).

- **Too many changes at once**

**Management wanted to change everything. You were still busy planning how you were going to do what was expected of you, when a whole bunch of new changes were announced. We also never received anything in writing that could help us or make the process easier for us.*

It was also unanimously agreed by the respondents that all the people that were appointed to do research or appointed or used to assist in the process and who had to lead, were all people that had no prior experience within a residence context. Most of these individuals had never been in a residence

and none of them ever approached any of the Residence Heads to learn more about residence life and residence culture. Visible action by leaders are important, and sensemaking allows people to craft, understand and accept new conceptualisations of the organisation, as stated in chapter 4 (see 4.4.3). Obviously this was an area that created many challenges for the respondents of this study.

Stragalas (2010:31) holds the view that an organisation's ability plan and manage change depends on how its existing culture is taken into account. Changing and adapting the cultural paradigms usually takes considerably more time than implementing new procedures or technology (Price & Chahal 2006:242). This implies that thorough research and proper planning is needed in order to effect large scale changes and that these changes will take time to implement (see 4.5.1).

Most of the respondents reported feelings of desperation and fear at not knowing how to manage all the new situations that arose, together with the problems accompanying them.

**Because management did not have insight into what res life entails, and also not an understanding of the residence system, they had no idea of what we had to deal with in the residences. This situation caused a lot of stress and unhappiness.*

It is evident from the data that these respondents felt that management did not understand the functioning of the residences.

5.4.4 Theme 4: MANAGEMENT APPROACH AND THE ROLE OF LEADERS

The communication skills of an organisation's leaders and their understanding of leadership communication, directly influence all other management functions in the organisation (see 4.3.3).

5.4.4.1 *Managerial conduct*

Without communication there can be no management. Ericksen (2001:22) states that leaders communicate not only information, but also attitudes and assumptions. In any leadership situation, the success of leaders depends on the quality of the co-operation they are able to establish between themselves and their subordinates. The above statements indicate that respondents did not perceive members of management as being prepared to establish a communication relationship or any relationship of trust.

Important information that often directly affected staff members were not communicated to the staff members in question.

**We often heard things that affected us directly from other people. This was perceived as very unprofessional and untactful by all of the respondents.*

The respondent who made the above statement said that they as Resident Heads had to learn from their students and from the campus intranet that their posts were going to be advertised and that their contracts as part time Residence Heads would be terminated. This caused a lot of uncertainty. In the end, the Residence Heads had to request a meeting in order to receive this important information. The respondent also stated that many of the Residence Heads in question were people that were very loyal to the UFS and the residences, were in academic positions at the UFS, and had had a very positive influence on students.

- **Undermining authority and not following protocol**

**Management will also disregard us as Residence Heads and rather speak to the Primes, but we are then constantly reminded by them that we are the responsible people and the highest authority in the residence. We are however not treated that way by them.*

**Protocol wasn't followed by my manager. The manager would come to my residence and speak to my students about for example, initiation, but then she would not tell them everything that she expected me to enforce. When I try to*

enforce the rules, my students would tell me that my manager said this or that, which is then opposite to what is expected of me. It is obvious that communication from management would carry more weight than communication from the HC or RH. This meant that when we reprimanded them about things they just told us that the manager said that it didn't work that way. This situation caused a lot of problems for me and my HC as it caused a lot of conflict between the HC members and the House. When the HC reprimanded them about certain things they referred to the message that they received from the particular manager and overruled the HC. This manager expected certain things from the Residence Heads and House Committee members, but communicated a different message to the House. It was so obvious that the manager did not at all understand the way in which a residence functioned.

The above situation was referred to by more than one respondent and placed residence heads and HC members in an extremely difficult situation, as they were the people who had to deliver all the “bad news” and changes at the residences.

**The manager expected us to be strict and constantly told us to “take back your power”. When we did act according to the rules, this manager usually sided with the students and created serious problems for us in the residences. Conflicting messages and behaviour were constantly experienced. This was extremely infuriating and frustrating, and also made me lose hope of ever getting anywhere positive.*

Respondents reported that situations such as the abovementioned made them feel as if they had no control over any situation and this was extremely demoralising.

- **Unapproachable leadership**

Communication and workforce engagement is critical to change success. Failure to adhere to the above has a very negative impact on change. This

point is discussed in chapter 4 (see 4.5.4) where the importance of workforce engagement is emphasised.

Research suggests that authority does not interfere with the more recently popular participative or consensus-based approach (Troy 1989). It has been proven that it enhances the distribution of influence down through the hierarchy and that it is important that employees be made a communication partner (see 4.4.4).

According to the data, all the Residence Heads interviewed, perceived the individuals from the management group as being rude and unapproachable and also not prepared to listen to anything that they wanted to suggest.

**I don't know why we had to sit and talk, or try to talk as nothing that we said were being considered valuable. It was just a case of being able to say that we were consulted, but in actual fact we were not consulted at all.*

The consultative intervention is also discussed as a separate theme (see 5.5) of this chapter.

- **Lack of trust**

As stated earlier, managing change successfully requires winning employees' trust and persuading them to believe that the changes will, in the end, be beneficial (see 4.4).

"Change projects are a promise of a better future," says (Von Wartburg, in Fendt 2006:3). Employees however, need much more time to let go of things that worked and try something new. The leaders need to create the perception that the promised future will actually materialise, and in order to achieve this, a top executive that is credible is needed, opines Von Wartburg (in Fendt 2006:3) further.

According to the vast majority of the respondents there was no trust between them and management. The following statement is an indication of perception of the relationship between them and management.

**Management is not 'real' and there are no open relations between us and them. It's almost like being in a constant battle.*

- **Non transparent**

**There were many meetings where they said they listened to us. There was a lot of interaction, but we did not get feedback on the issues that we raised. There was no transparency. They did not talk to us.*

**There was also no transparency. Many decisions had to be implemented with difficulty by Residence Heads. Questions in connection with these issues could not be explained or questions concerning issues that were raised were not answered.*

The role of management in communicating organisational change cannot be stressed enough. Elving and Hansma (2008:1) found that, during organisational change, employees must be informed what exactly will change, how these changes will take place, and how the changed organisation will face the future. The residence management staff unanimously reported that this was not the case.

- **Management style autocratic**

Price and Chahal (2006:242) state that senior management has a key role in developing the vision and achieving change through consultation rather than by diktat. The data received from respondents unfortunately paints a different picture.

**The leadership structure at the UFS, and especially the Student Affairs- and Accommodation Services Departments are totally autocratic. If something was researched or taken into account it was American literature which was not at all applicable to our situation.*

From the data collected from the respondents it is clear that all of the respondents, without exception perceived management to be very autocratic. It is argued by Baldoni (2004:20) that the ability to speak is not the same as

the ability to communicate. From a communication perspective this is problematic, as communication is a two-way process that involves speaking and listening as well as checking for understanding. Constructing a message, addressing it to another, listening for feedback and processing it, as well as continuing to communicate in ways that are understood requires a complex set of skills and take time to develop.

5.4.5 Theme 5: CONSULTATIVE PROCESS

It is clearly indicated in the literature study that most change interventions are mediated by consultants. The UFS also appointed a consultancy to assist with the implementation of the process of integrating diverse cultures in the junior residences.

It is impossible to separate consultation and communication. Effective consultation requires a common understanding of what diversity and change is and how it can be achieved (Human 2005:66) (see 4.6.1). The information received from the data, indicated that the relationship between the consultancy firm and the majority of the respondents was not positive and did not create an open forum where issues could be discussed honestly and openly. In this theme the following constructs; namely their conduct, approach, and the way in which they engaged with employees serve to elaborate on this issue.

5.4.5.1 Consultative conduct

It became clear from the data received, that the consultative staff members were viewed in a rather negative light and that none of the respondents felt that there was a relationship between them and the consultative firm.

**This member of the consultancy firm would arrange training sessions that would then be brainstorming sessions. When you showed your unhappiness, you would just be embarrassed in front of your colleagues.*

**We were treated unprofessionally and that inhibited us. I did not feel free to speak openly.*

**Treating people rudely and only facilitating when it suits you is not consultation.*

The above statements were also echoed during both the focus group sessions by the vast majority of respondents.

Employees that feel they are being treated autocratically will perceive the organisational climate as defensive and this is not conducive for open communication. In chapter 3 (see 3.3.4.2) it is stated that the environment that people experience in their organisations and the type of communication patterns that emerge during consultation, can ensure either a greater degree of participation or a feeling that efforts are to no avail. In chapter 4 (see 4.2.2.2.1) the importance of gaining employees' participation are perceived as the catalyst for implementing sustained organisational change (Lines 2004, in Russ 2008:204). Russ (*ibid*) continues that the participatory approach necessitates more dialogic communication tactics whereby input is gathered and used to shape the change, the organisation, and the constituents (users/stakeholders). The objective is to build consensus and rally support for the change as well as to allow affected stakeholders to make contributions without feeling threatened.

- **Consultative staff perceived as disrespectful**

In the literature, consultation is described as the opportunity to provide and receive information in a meaningful discussion. Consultation also entails being given as much relevant information as needed to make an informed and educated choice. It is essential that consultants are prepared to listen (see 4.6). Most of the participants to the study, as well as the feedback from the focus groups indicated that the majority of respondents did not perceive the consultation process that they were subjected to, as such.

**The consultant claimed to be a facilitator, but if you said something that this person disagreed with, you would be treated very rudely and this consultant would openly disagree with you. The consultant also thought nothing of embarrassing a staff member in front of his/her colleagues.*

One of the other respondents described the situation as follows:

**We were supposed to pave our own way, but say something that didn't please the consultant, or disagree with them and then suddenly you are being attacked personally and their opinion are being forced on you in the rudest possible way.*

**Especially one of the people from the consultancy firm treated us really disrespectfully. We were only allowed to say what they wanted to hear. If you said anything that upset this person, you would be embarrassed and humiliated in front of the whole group and a conflict situation would arise.*

**The Residence Heads could have been helped much more by this consultancy firm. They kind of cut us out and undermined our authority by often not consulting with us, or supplying us with any information, but consulting with the Primes. A specific consultant made it appear, and treated us as if we were actually redundant and just in the way of transformation.*

**Students and Primes were often called in and took decisions about issues that Residence Heads were supposed to have input in. Residence Heads were very often treated with disrespect or just disregarded. This in spite of the fact that most Residence Heads are all highly qualified professional people. It was clear to me that we did not fit into management's or the consultancy firm's framework. When difficult situations arose in the residences however, we were the people on the frontline that had to manage these situations without any assistance from management or the consultancy firm.*

One of the respondents stated that: *Residence Heads were treated disrespectful and with contempt. Residence Heads were not taken seriously.*

**You were not allowed to voice your opinion, or if your opinion was different to that of the convenor, this person would openly become agitated with the staff member and the convenor's body language and whole persona would show disagreement. This was so embarrassing that most of us just shut down and stopped talking.*

**We were often treated as redundant.*

It is indicated in the literature that the consultation process should be one where participants feel safe and able to voice their honest opinions without fear of being misinterpreted. Almost all the respondents agreed that the consultancy firm did not create such a climate (see 4.6).

- **Training sessions**

According to the data, respondents strongly felt that they were not regarded as people that could make valuable contributions. They also perceived the consulting firm as regarding them as not knowing anything or as being unintelligent.

**The training sessions mostly took the form of brainstorming sessions, where we had to come up with ideas. It was never formal training.*

**They did not prepare well for the stuff that they had to present to us. I think they did not realise or take into account that we were all graduated people with strong personalities able to make contributions and our own conclusions. We were not so easy to run down and this caused them to become aggressive.*

The above was also strongly emphasised in both the focus group sessions.

- **Openly one-sided**

**In the beginning I had a lot of hope because we thought that these people would not be so one-sided and political. What a disappointment we had. This put us into an even more hopeless situation and caused us more trouble. The*

consultant was perceived by me as being openly one-sided. There was no meeting each other halfway.

As stated in chapter 4 (see 4.4.), effective consultation underscores the belief in the basic equality and dignity of all employees and the fact that they need to be respected and listened to. Consultants should also have expertise in the field that they consult in, otherwise the people involved in the process will not regard them as credible and trustworthy.

5.4.5.2 Consultancy approach

The literature study in chapter 4 (see 4.4.4) indicated that successful consultation is reliant on certain conditions. One of the mentioned factors contributing to successful consultation is the commitment by all parties to communicate with each other, to listen and to engage in discussion over change. Unfortunately it seemed as this was not how the process was approached.

- **Consultative staff unapproachable**

In chapter 3 (see 3.4.1) the fact that interpersonal communication is a major component of organisational behaviour at every level is emphasised (Maes, Weldley & Icenogle 1997). Interpersonal communication requires a repertoire of skills with which we perform the appropriate acts in response to the situation. Interpersonal communication is important in building and sustaining human relationships at work and cannot be replaced by advances in technology and data management or any other means (Nelson & Quick 2008:175).

**There have been many conflict situations between Residence Heads and a certain member of the consultancy firm. This person cannot listen to anything that you have to suggest.*

**They expected us to be accepting, but they were openly showing where their loyalty lay.*

**The consultant is unapproachable. Only one consultant who was not involved in the whole process was prepared to listen to us. The main consultant was not interested in what we said. Whenever you said something that was against this person's ideas or perceptions, you were told that that was not the way.*

Engaging employees is deemed very important for successful change implementation. Responses indicated that this was unfortunately not the case.

- **No or too little support**

The feedback received from the respondents indicated that they experienced the context in which the consultation took place as threatening and that they felt that more support could have been given to them by the consultancy firm. The following statements give an indication of the respondent's perception of the situation:

**They did not have answers for us or did not know how to drive the process.*

**I called them twice and they did listen to me, but this was a once off thing. I did not receive continued support from them. There was no building a relationship and there was no understanding. I think this is a process, not a once off thing.*

**The consultancy firm was just an extension of management and the assistance that we hoped for an idle dream.*

- **Consultancy could not sell the process**

**They could not sell the process, because they came with their foreign ideas. It was clear that they did not have any regard for what we had done up to now. They did however not take the trouble to establish exactly what it was. It was just seen in a negative light.*

**They forced the process on us because they had no intention of consulting us, and they never did consult us.*

One of the guidelines for successful consultation suggested in the literature is that the consultancy should ensure ownership of the process. All of the respondents reported unanimously that they were not convinced that the process was going to work and did not have the opportunity to give input. Therefore they did not take ownership of the process.

- **Credibility**

Respondents reported that they anxiously awaited the consultancy firm as they were desperate for someone they felt would understand them and that they could turn to. Respondents reported however that they were very soon disappointed by the process.

The following statements accentuate this:

**When the consultancy firm came, there was excitement among us in the hope of a better managed process and that things would change. We were disappointed very soon.*

**The consultancy firm arrived after a lot of difficult situations had occurred on campus. After all the problems we had encountered with management, I hoped that they, as an outside organisation, would be able to be impartial. I was disappointed very quickly.*

From the above information supplied by the respondents it became evident that a serious lack of trust between the consultancy firm and the other parties existed. It was also evident from the data that a relationship between the consultancy and the respondents were never established. Therefore, proper consultation could not take place as engagement was not conducted in a context of reciprocal respect and trust.

5.4.5.3 Employee engagement

In chapter 4, (see 4.6) participation in discussions that lead to important decisions, as well as commitment by all parties to communicate with each other is deemed of great importance. Feedback received from respondents, suggest that this was yet another area where difficulties were encountered. The important role of internal communication in organisations is highlighted by the constructivist perspective that states that communication is a social process of interaction and/or interpretation that gives sense and meaning to social reality (Mazzei 2010:223). The engaging of employees and the strategic management of interactions and relationships is essential and is a prerequisite for a positive external image.

- **Consultation process**

It is evident from the data that respondents had a very high expectation from the consultancy. A sense of relief and hope was experienced when the consultancy firm was appointed. Respondents reported further that at this point in the process, they were already very demoralised and were honestly looking forward to an objective viewpoint from people outside the organisation and their working environment. They however reported that they almost immediately sensed that the consultancy was not perceived as being objective and open to communication.

**Initially at the beginning with the one-on-one interviews, the consultation helped me, because I knew it was confidential and I could off-load everything that was bothering me. We hoped and thought that they were going to help us, that they were going to understand us and listen to our problems, but in the end the whole process was made even worse by them. It was like therapy being able to say what you honestly feel.*

**I soon found out that things were actually going to be worse. The consultative firm and myself in the beginning, well I thought that I was going to get help and understanding. I thought that they would guide us. They said that they could not supply us with the way and that we had to make our own*

way. That was okay, but they could not show us how to make the road either. There never was a road map. We were told by everyone to do certain things, we were not allowed to use our own initiative, but they could also not show us the way. We needed guidance and leadership.

- **No effective communication or consultation**

**Communication was not effective at all.* The respondents reported that they felt that there was no open channel of communication.

**The consultant never gave us a chance to say what bothered us. This was extremely frustrating. I felt extremely unhappy and frustrated.*

Another respondent claimed that the way in which messages were conveyed to staff was not acceptable. This respondent felt that staff members were often disregarded and ignored when decisions had to be taken. Decisions that had already been taken were then forced on them.

As has been stated in chapter 3 (see 3.5), communication satisfaction is important to individuals, as communication is linked to job performance and job satisfaction. Communication experiences with the consultancy were however experienced very negatively in most instances. This according to Shockley-Zalabak (1991:134) can be so influential that it can contribute to the quality and quantity of the individual's work.

- **Autocratic**

The consultant that was in charge of the consultation process was in regular contact with the respondents. This consultant did however not allow respondents to voice their opinions, and this created the perception that the process was being handled very autocratically. In chapter 3 (see 3.5) it is emphasised that a strong relationship exists between the individual and the organisation. If an effective system of communication does not exist, the individual will not be able to function properly in the environment that is created, or exists.

**We were often interrupted by the consultant and not given an opportunity to voice our opinions. Especially when they were the opposite of what this consultant believed they should be.*

**The consultant would not give us the opportunity to speak. He acted as if he knew what we were going to say.*

- **Employees felt unsafe**

As stated in chapter 4 (see 4.6), consultation helps to create a context in which fears and concerns can be addressed, particularly where the dominant group feels threatened (Human 2005:66).

The following respondent reported that: *A feeling of being harassed and abused can be sensed among the RH's. Most of us are quite exhausted and stressed out. Especially the conscientious and hardworking Residence Heads that take their jobs seriously and have a heart for students.*

**There is definitely a relationship of distrust between Residence Heads and the consultancy firm and Residence Heads and management. They were in one team and we were in another. Neither of us trusted one another.*

The above statements indicate that the organisational climate and organisational communication climate, as well as the departmental climate were affected.

Goodell (1992:323) postulates that it is logical that the environment that people experience in their organisations influences at least some part of their behaviour. Allen (2003:63) is further of opinion that organisational climate is a reflection of the way people perceive and come to describe the characteristics of their environment (see 3.3.4.2). One of the responsibilities of the consultant during the process of consultation is to create a positive climate that is conducive to interaction between the different parties. Unfortunately the data provided by the respondents indicated that this was not at all the case.

5.4.6 Theme 6: THE HUMAN FACTOR

In chapter 3 (see 3.5) the individual is described as the central figure in organisational behaviour. Two organisational dimensions affected by change, namely the intrapersonal and interpersonal dimensions, have the individual at the core of the discussed dimensions. Rosseel (2005:220) postulates in chapter 4 (see 4.5.5.1) that the micro-emotional level of change implementation that refers to the human and emotional side of change management is very important and should not be overlooked. Unfortunately this aspect of change implementation is often disregarded as most managers do not know how to deal with this level of implementation. To explore this theme which was very prominent in the data in more detail, the emotional issues that evolved from the data will now be discussed.

5.4.6.1 Emotional factors

As has been previously mentioned, the emotional engagement of others is essential and there is therefore a need for communication instead of information. The importance of involving the workforce in decision making is a process that requires constant communication and commitment (see 4.4.2). Several issues in this regard have been voiced.

- **Disregard for emotional link with residence culture**

In chapter 3 (see 3.2.1.2) it is stated by Hellriegel *et al.* (2006) that a learning organisation's culture is one in which everyone agrees on a shared vision and everyone recognises the inherent relationships among the organisation's processes, activities, functions, and external environment. A strong sense of community, caring for each other, and trust are perceived in such an organisation.

In contrast to the above, it was perceived that respondents felt that there was no understanding of the situation that they found themselves in. Harris and Nelson (2008:82) refers to Shein (1990) in his explanation that groups and

organisations learn to survive, adapt, and solve problems over a period of time, and that this allows for the development of a culture unique to that group. This culture is so part of the group that the assumptions and beliefs of it is “taken for granted”. In other words, the activities regularly engaged in by organisational members have become a part of their daily lives.

According to the respondents, each residence has its own culture and own unique way of expressing who they are and what is important to them. They have over the years developed values that they hold very dear. The fact that a very strong competition element exists on campus has also strengthened this sense of pride and belonging associated with the different residences. According to respondents, management totally ignored the importance of these residence cultures. Management saw residence culture as something bad that had to be rooted out.

The residences can be seen as communities and the explanation by Werner (2007) in chapter three (see 3.3.4) holds that culture is a system of shared assumptions held by members that distinguishes one group or organisation from another. Respondents claimed that these unique residence cultures are of extreme importance to the students who reside in them.

Most respondents are of opinion that management had a very negative view towards the existing practices in residences. Several respondents stated that management never took the trouble to investigate or research what was really happening in the residences. As some respondents claimed: *They had preconceived ideas and what they thought to be the truth, were in most cases very far removed from the truth. In fact, none of the people involved in managing the process of changing the residences ever gave the impression that they understood, or had researched, or knew anything about the functioning of our residences.*

**There is a strong emotional link between residents and their residence, as well as between Residence Heads, Primes and House Committee members toward their respective residences. To the students, this is not merely a place to stay, it is your home and your fellow students are seen as your family.*

Strong emotional bonds are involved here. This was something that management refused to understand.

**Something that was also ignored was the culture of residences. Each residence has its own culture and special dynamics. The students felt that everything that they valued and held dear were just being taken away from them. This made them very rebellious. It was like taking away a part of their personality.*

In chapter 3 (see 3.5.1) people's psychological connections to their teams, professions, and organisations are discussed. This affiliation also contributes to enhance a positive sense of self and is very important. The feedback suggests that this component was overlooked by management.

It is evident that the communication used during this change intervention did not consider the emotional links of participants with their residence cultures.

- **Individuals inhibited**

The lack of support received from management has already been described earlier in this chapter (see 5.3.3.3) and discussed in chapter 3 (see 3.3.1). Keyton (2005:13) is of opinion that organisational communication is a complex and continuous process and that it is important that all organisational members participate in this process and that communication is not the sole responsibility or privilege of managers. Even if managers create and send most of the messages, their subordinates and peers create meaning from the messages.

During the examined change intervention this was not the case as was illustrated by the following statements:

**I did not feel free to speak. You were afraid of being insulted or attacked personally. The situation was unbearable and we were very demoralised.*

**I did not feel that I could say exactly what I felt. You could not be honest, as that would land you in trouble or some or other stressful situation.*

- **Emotions experienced**

The emotional side has already been referred to (see 5.3.2.3) earlier in this chapter. The following statements further explain the emotional turmoil that many of the employees experienced during the change intervention:

**The feeling among Residence Heads, HC-, and SRC members is one of constantly being in a battle. There is never a cease fire.*

**As stated by a respondent: A feeling of intense frustration was experienced by the students and the Residence Heads. We did however, have nowhere to turn.* Most other respondents experienced the same frustration and reported experiencing feelings of desperation.

Emotional words like harassed, abused, afraid of, desperate, hopeless, were among some of the words used to describe the respondent's feelings.

- **Disregard of RH in the process**

As stated previously, successful change implementation requires management's support and a relationship of trust. According to the data collected from respondents, serious problems were encountered with both management support, as well as the establishment of a relationship of trust. Respondents unanimously agreed that their opinions were totally disregarded as was quoted in previous sections. Many of the respondents also indicated that they felt that they were being attacked personally. This had serious consequences for the morale of the respondents.

- **Personal attacks and criticism**

It is important to note that most successful leaders make their sense of purpose clear to those around them, not by force, coercion, or formal authority, but by their sincere devotion to people and purpose and by their patient perseverance in the face of all obstacles. Leaders who consider their

workforce and treat them with respect are admired and supported (see 4.3.2.5). Unfortunately the contrary is also applicable.

**I was often personally attacked in meetings if I dared differ from my manager. The situation was really unbearable and very unpleasant. Other members of staff that this manager perceived as a threat was also regularly attacked by the manager.*

**On more than one occasion it happened that a staff member was attacked personally and shamed in front of the whole group.*

Respondents reported that the conduct of some management members was unacceptable and very intimidating. This caused most respondents to shut down and feel very inhibited.

- **Personal values regarded as non-important**

One specific respondent felt very strongly about the fact that personal values of staff members were not respected at all. During one of the focus group sessions the respondents reported that this just emphasised the disregard that management had for them as individuals.

**I told the manager that this was something that was against my principles and the reply given was that in the workplace your principles sometimes have to be second.*

Employees felt that they were being disrespected at every possible level and they stated that this caused feelings of intense anxiety and stress. As stated in chapter 3 (see 3.5.1) changes at the workplace often present a major challenge to many employees' sense of self-efficacy and belief systems about the management and care of clients. However, if an organisation does not pay attention to the well-being of their employees, this will inevitably have an impact on the organisation in the long run.

5.5 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

In order to provide a synopsis of the results, and a holistic perspective of the outcomes of the research, table 5.1 is included. This table illustrates the main themes that evolved from the data and their related concepts and constructs.

Main themes	Concepts	Constructs
Communication approach	*Channels of communication	One way approach/ top down Lack of bottom up communication Absence of lateral communication
	*Isolated functioning	Silo approach to communication No consultation
	*No feedback	Disregard for input
	*Quality of communication	Standard of communication to parents and stakeholders No retrospective communication Lack of interpersonal communication skills
	*Hidden agendas	No transparency and no open communication
Organisational culture and climate and organisational structure		
<i>Organisational culture and climate</i>	*Defensive communication climate	Rigid decision making Reciprocal distrust
	*Stultifying context	The role of politics on campus
	*Emotional issues	
	*Training and retraining required	Standard of training presented

		Not responsive to client's needs
<i>Organisational structure</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Change structure without consultation *Silo approach *Lack of resources 	Functioning in isolation
Management of change	*Non consultation	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> *Direction provided by leadership *The role of leadership 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Attention to planning Crisis management Repetition of activities without progress Lack of leadership support Relationship of trust Non transparent Too many changes at once
Management approach/role of leaders	Managerial conduct	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inconsistency Undermining authority and not following protocol Unapproachable leadership Lack of trust Non transparent Management style autocratic

Consultative process	*Consultative conduct	Consultative staff perceived as disrespectful
	Consultancy approach	<p>Training sessions</p> <p>Openly one-sided</p> <p>Consultative staff unapproachable</p> <p>No or too little support</p> <p>Consultancy could not sell the process</p> <p>Credibility</p>
	*Employee engagement	<p>Consultancy process</p> <p>No effective communication or consultation</p> <p>Autocratic</p> <p>Employees felt unsafe</p>
The human factor	*Emotional factors	Disregard for emotional link with residence culture
		<p>Individuals inhibited</p> <p>Emotions experienced</p> <p>Disregard for Residence Heads in the process</p> <p>Personal attacks or criticism</p> <p>Personal values regarded as non-important</p>

Table 5.1: Overview of research results

5.6 PRELIMINARY THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK TO CONTEXTUALISE COMMUNICATION INDICATORS DERIVED FROM THE DATA

The theoretical framework proposed in the next section has its roots in the theory of contemporary organisational communication and change management communication as discussed in chapters 3 and 4. The concepts and the constructs that evolved from the research data, verified against the literature review, form the body of the framework.

The pillars of the communication framework identified, consider important aspects highlighted by Jandt (2004) and Saeed (2005). Jandt (2004) underlined the importance of *policies* and *procedures* within an organisation, while Saeed (2005) added organisational *processes* to the equation. As an organisation is enacted and constituted through human interaction, the *human element* was considered an essential pillar within the context of this study. Furthermore, the importance of *principles* to guide conduct in the organisation was added as the final pillar. The function of the processes and procedures are to manage the context of the change intervention, the principles and policies are added to address the quality of the intervention and the people affected by the change intervention therefore form the five pillars of the framework.

These five pillars embrace the main themes identified in the data. The process is representative of the *communication approach*, *the management approach* and *the consultative process*. The procedures refer mainly to the themes of *organisational culture*, *climate and structure* and *the management of change*. As the principles and policies are considered as regulating the quality of the communication in the change intervention, it is linked to all of the identified main themes. Finally, the people are representative of the *human factor*.

The data discussed previously reflected the communication situation as experienced by the respondents.

Against the background of the research results and the literature reviewed a theoretical communication framework for assisting management during the implementation of change was developed. This framework will address the macro-rational level (the process, the procedures and the policies), as well as micro-emotional level (people and principles). In the following section the five categories will be elaborated on to demonstrate the indicators relevant to each.

5.6.1 The process

With regard to the process the following aspects are indicative of success:

- An evaluation of the nature, scope and context of the change intervention that must be communicated should be regarded as the first step in the process
- Change should be approached from a holistic perspective
- The most relevant components of the different approaches to change management should be identified and combined according to the context specific requirements
- A theoretical background on the nature, reasons of, and mechanisms for the change communication should be developed
- Change should be approached as a consultative process
- The macro-rational- and micro-emotional levels of change should be implemented simultaneously
- A strong organisational culture and positive climate should be created
- Clients' needs should be taken into consideration during the change process
- The quality of the process should be regarded as important
- Change should be implemented systematically.

5.6.2 Procedures

Procedures that should be in place to enhance the quality of the communication during change are:

- Adequate resources to assist with the implementation and to support the process should be in place
- The formulation of planned and purposeful communication strategies to direct behaviour and motivate participants are essential
- The micro-emotional level in change management should be adequately managed to ensure that the human component receives preference in the process
- Channels that accommodate two-way communication should be established and should receive precedence as it enables feedback
- A combination of top-down and bottom-up involvement should be encouraged
- In change management the receiver should be considered the most important participant in the process
- Practical implications of decisions should be considered before implementation of such decisions
- Professional training should be provided at all levels of the organisation to enhance the organisational culture
- The implementation of too many changes at once should be avoided.
- Wide-scale consultation should take place.

5.6.3 The people

The people in charge of the change process should demonstrate effective interpersonal communication skills. The change agents should:

- Be competent communicators that are approachable, transparent in conduct, and possess basic management skills

- Be consistent in their conduct
- Be open to dialogue
- Listen with an open mind
- Take emotions into consideration as aspects such as fear, frustration, despair and anxiety could impede on the effectiveness of the communicative process
- Encourage individuals to engage in open communication
- Value relationships of mutual trust and respect
- Establish a culture of support
- Acknowledge individual differences
- Manage the process without preconceived ideas and unbiased
- Realise that strong leadership is necessary in a changing environment.

5.6.4 The principles

Principles that will guide the ethical conduct during the change process include:

- Acknowledgement of cultural differences
- Practicing of two-way communication
- Establishing a relationship of trust
- Underwriting values such as fairness, trustworthiness, honesty and integrity
- Genuinely starting from the point of view of the other
- Including the four areas of great leadership – envisioning, enabling, energising and focusing
- To achieve buy-in from the receiver whom are most affected by the changes

- Communicating clearly
- Having no hidden agendas
- Communicating timely, consistent and accurately
- Making use of rich channels of communication such as face-to-face techniques
- Acknowledging the personal values of all participants
- Recognition of success during the process should be seen as important
- Objectivity towards all participants in the change process is essential
- Non-verbal communication should at all times enhance the verbal communication.

5.6.5 The policy

Policies stipulating the necessary conduct regarding the process and procedures should be formulated and these policies should be honoured. It is important to align these policies with the principles of the King Report (III) on corporate governance pertaining to responsible leadership and ethical conduct.

5.7 RESPONDENT VALIDATION OF THE FRAMEWORK

In order to increase the credibility and validity of the study and to correct errors that could have been perceived as wrong interpretations (Cohen & Crabtree 2006), respondent validation was done to conclude the research component of this study. Respondents to the study were therefore requested to evaluate the proposed framework in order to assess the accuracy of the researcher's interpretation, and to minimise one-sidedness. Respondent validation gives respondents the opportunity to correct errors and enables assessment of what the respondent intended by making exact comments, as well as prevent personal biases (Lincoln & Guba 1985).

In this study, the data was used to develop a theoretical communication framework with indicators for better communication during the management of change implementation. In order to establish the accuracy of the researcher's conclusions, this theoretical communication framework was submitted to the respondents for validation and input.

5.7.1 Procedure followed

The respondents were contacted telephonically and told that the suggested framework would be send to them for validation. An e-mail message was compiled by the researcher in which instructions for the completion of the required feedback was supplied. Terms such as macro-rational and micro-emotional levels of an organisation was explained in the instructions (See Appendix B). The suggested communication framework was then submitted to all 14 of the respondents that took part in the study. (See Appendix C). Respondents were required to indicate agreement, neutrality and disagreement with the indicators provided in the five pillars of the framework. When neutrality or disagreement was indicated, reasons had to be supplied. Two respondents did not supply reasons for neutral answers, they were contacted telephonically and reasons for these answers were obtained from them.

5.7.2 Sample used for respondent validation

The sample for the respondent validation comprised the 14 respondents that participated in the in-depth interviews and focus groups of the study. Of the 14 respondents that the suggested communication framework were submitted to, nine (9) returned completed questionnaires.

5.7.3 Respondent validation results

The respondents reported as follows concerning the proposed theoretical communication framework.

Five (5) of the nine (9) respondents agreed with all the statements suggested at each of the five pillars.

In total, there were three statements in the framework where disagreement was indicated. These statements were indicated by two of the respondents. One respondent indicated disagreement with two statements, and the other respondent disagreed with one statement in the framework. All three of these statements are statements included in Pillar 2: The Procedures.

Responses will be discussed under each Pillar. Fifteen (15) neutral responses were recorded in total by four of the respondents. Most of the neutral responses were made in Pillar 1: The Process and Pillar 2: The procedures.

Each of the five pillars with the responses to them will now be discussed in detail.

- Pillar 1: The process

With regard to the process the following aspects are indicative of success:

1. An evaluation of the nature, scope and context of the change intervention that must be communicated should be regarded as the first step in the process.
2. Change should be approached from a holistic perspective.
3. The most relevant components of the different approaches to change management should be identified and combined according to the context specific requirements.
4. A theoretical background on the nature, reasons of, and mechanisms for the change communication should be developed.
5. Change should be approached as a consultative process.
6. The macro-rational- and micro-emotional levels of change should be implemented simultaneously.
7. A strong organisational culture and positive climate should be created.
8. Clients' needs should be taken into consideration during the change process.
9. The quality of the process should be regarded as important.
10. Change should be implemented systematically.

At Pillar 1, five (5) neutral responses were indicated by three of the respondents. The statements where neutral responses were indicated are: statements one (1), three (3,) four (4), six (6) and ten (10). In other words, no statement was marked neutral by more than one respondent.

The neutral responses were explained as follows by each of the respondents:

The first respondent being referred to indicated neutral answers at the first and fourth statement.

Statement 1 indicates that:

1. An evaluation of the nature, scope and context of the change intervention that must be communicated should be regarded as the first step in the process.

The respondent indicated that establishing the nature and scope of a change intervention is not easy and not always possible beforehand. According to the respondent it is also not always necessary to supply the receiver in the process with so much information. The receiver should be informed what to do in order to implement the process, but does not always have to have all the information.

In chapter 4 (see 4.5.1), it is indicated by Stragalas (2010) that managers would benefit from the review of broad scale organisation approaches. Grobler and Puth (2002) state that during the preparation of the organisation, change managers should assess the current context and the nature, scope and direction of the change intervention (see 4.5.1) and should communicate the information clearly to all involved in the process. This is an aspect that was very prominent throughout the study.

Statement 4 indicates that:

4. A theoretical background on the nature, reasons of, and mechanisms for the change communication should be developed.

Here, the respondent was of opinion that change implementation processes differ from organisation to organisation and that the process should be started as soon as possible. Factors such as planning and the construction of theoretical frameworks, as referred to in this statement, can be dealt with during the process. The respondent was also of opinion that there was often not enough time to plan so much in advance and develop theoretical frameworks as was suggested in statement 4. The opinions of the respondent are refuted by what is stated in the literature. In chapter 4 (see 4.5.2) it is stated by Ford and Ford (1995) that the successful implementation of a change intervention depends on creating a shared understanding among participants and producing a clear statement of the conditions of the change.

Furthermore, it is acknowledged that no two organisational change processes will be exactly the same, but a theoretical framework will provide a point of departure that can be adapted as the process evolves.

Statement 3 states that:

3. The most relevant components of the different approaches to change management should be identified and combined according to the context specific requirements

Another respondent indicated statement 3 of Pillar 1 as neutral and explained that according to the respondent it was not always possible in real life situations to adhere to the suggested requirements. This respondent also felt that it was not really necessary for successful communication and implementation of change. In the literature in chapter 4 (see 4.2) it is however clearly stated by Rooney and McKenna (2008) that there is a need for managers to consider multiple perspectives and in doing so develop higher levels of empathy toward members and other groups. It is also stated at 4.2.1 that attention should be paid to the context, time, history, process and action, as well as the link between change processes and performance.

The two statements indicated as neutral by the third respondent are statements 6, and 10.

These statements indicate that:

- 6. The macro-rational- and micro-emotional levels of change should be implemented simultaneously
- 10. Change should be implemented systematically.

The respondent replied as follows:

**Concerning statement 6, I feel that it would be very difficult to do this. The reason for my answer is because people only start to accept the change much later in the process, therefore the onset of the process has to do with rational decision making and then as emotions are experienced, for example resistance to change, it can be explained to the workforce.*

This same respondent reported as follows concerning statement 10. **I believe that one should chop off a dog's tail all at once, and not piece by piece, as this just prolongs the pain and gives the impression that the change will not be followed through to the end. I am therefore not sure whether systematic implementation is the way to go.*

In chapter 4 (see 4.5.5.1) it is stated by Rosseel (2005) that not only is the micro-emotional level being inadequately managed, but the very fact of considering it as a second step, or a next phase in the implementation process is problematic. It can therefore be surmised that the simultaneous implementation of these two levels are essential.

- Pillar 2: Procedures

Procedures that should be in place to enhance the quality of the communication during change are:

1. Adequate resources to assist with the implementation and to support the process should be in place
2. The formulation of planned and purposeful communication strategies to direct behaviour and motivate participants are essential
3. The micro-emotional level in change management should be adequately managed to ensure that the human component receives preference in the process
4. Channels that accommodate two-way communication should be established and should receive precedence as it enables feedback
5. A combination of top-down and bottom-up involvement should be encouraged
6. In change management the receiver should be considered the most important participant in the process
7. Practical implications of decisions should be considered before implementation of such decisions
8. Professional training should be provided at all levels of the organisation to enhance the organisational culture
9. The implementation of too many changes at once should be avoided.
10. Wide-scale consultation should take place.

Five of the nine respondents recorded agreement with all the statements in this section of the framework. The four remaining respondents recorded seven (7) neutral answers and three (3) answers that indicated disagreement between them.

All four of these respondents indicated neutral answers at statement 6, and they all stated that depending on the process, scope and requirements of the change to be implemented, they felt that it unrealistic to agree that the receiver should always be regarded as the most important participant in the process. These respondents felt that although the receiver should be considered, the process will sometimes be the most important element during change implementation. One of the respondents also felt that there will always be people that will not be willing to go along with the process and therefore, the process must sometimes be considered more important than the people receiving the change message.

Statement 6 states that:

In change management the receiver should be considered the most important participant in the process

One of these respondents stated that: **The receiver of the message is not necessarily the most knowledgeable about the process, therefore they cannot always be regarded as most important. There will always be a certain amount of unhappiness about certain things in the workplace.*

It is however very clearly stated in the literature that the receivers of the message that are the people that have to implement the process should be considered as the most important participant in the process (see 4.5.5 & 4.5.5.1).

9. The implementation of too many changes at once should be avoided.

Two of the respondents disagreed with statement 9, and explained that: **At times, simultaneous change happening in all corners of an organisation is also good so the implementation of many changes can be controlled and implemented.*

The other respondent stated: **I think if the process requires it and if the people that have to implement the changes can cope with it, as many as necessary changes should be implemented in order to make sure that the process is followed through.*

One respondent reported a neutral answer at statement 9. The respondent explained that the the best way to implement change was by implementing several changes at once so that the process can be continuous.

The final neutral statement in this section pertains to the macro-rational and micro-emotional levels in change management as referred to in statement 3.

3. The micro-emotional level in change management should be adequately managed to ensure that the human component receives preference in the process

The respondent referred to the fact that there is a constant staff turnover in organisations, with staff constantly leaving and new staff members coming into an organisation. Therefore, this statement seemed idealistic to the respondent. The respondent also indicated that many organisations are set on making profit and that the human element is easily disregarded in these organisations.

As already stated, it is postulated by Rosseel (2005) chapter 4 (see 4.5.5.1) that if changes are not dealt with appropriately at the micro-emotional level, the implementation of change will be problematic. According to Rosseel (2005) the human side of change management can assist to marry theory and practice, and attention to the human element is an essential part of the change implementation process.

One of the respondents indicated disagreement with statement 3.

Finally, one of the respondents indicated a neutral answer at statement 10.

10. Wide-scale consultation should take place.

The respondent explained: **This is difficult and would be difficult to do. Many people with many different ideas work in an organisation. It is impossible to incorporate everybody's ideas and opinions. Knowledgeable people should take the important decisions.*

- Pillar 3: The people

All nine of the respondents agreed with all of the statements at pillar 3.

The people in charge of the change process should demonstrate effective interpersonal communication skills. The change agents should:

1. Be competent communicators that are approachable, transparent in conduct, and possess basic management skills
2. Be consistent in their conduct
3. Be open to dialogue
4. Listen with an open mind
5. Take emotions into consideration as aspects such as fear, frustration, despair and anxiety could impede on the effectiveness of the communicative process
6. Encourage individuals to engage in open communication
7. Value relationships of mutual trust and respect
8. Establish a culture of support
9. Acknowledge individual differences
10. Manage the process without preconceived ideas and unbiased
11. Realise that strong leadership is necessary in a changing environment.

- Pillar 4: The principles

Seven (7) of the nine (9) respondents agreed with all of the statements at pillar 4. Two respondents recorded neutral answers in this section.

The neutral responses were recorded at four (4) different statements, namely statements, 1, 5, 7 and 12.

Principles that will guide the ethical conduct during the change process include:

1. Acknowledgement of cultural differences
2. Practicing of two-way communication
3. Establishing a relationship of trust
4. Underwriting values such as fairness, trustworthiness, honesty and integrity
5. Genuinely starting from the point of view of the other
6. Including the four areas of great leadership – envisioning, enabling, energising and focusing
7. To achieve buy-in from the receiver whom are most affected by the changes

8. Communicating clearly
9. Having no hidden agendas
10. Communicating timely, consistent and accurately
11. Making use of rich channels of communication such as face-to-face techniques
12. Acknowledging the personal values of all participants
13. Recognition of success during the process should be seen as important
14. Objectivity towards all participants in the change process is essential
15. Non-verbal communication should at all times enhance the verbal communication.

Each of the respondents recorded two neutral answers and they will be discussed as such. The first respondent indicated statement 1 and statement 5. This respondent was of opinion that the acknowledgement of cultural differences in the workplace was not of importance. **People should adapt to the organisations that they work for. It is impossible for organisations to pay too much attention to this.*

Concerning statement 5, the respondent indicated that people are in the workplace to perform certain tasks and should therefore be informed of what is expected of them. Furthermore, organisations are there to produce profit. In order to obtain organisational goals, the most important issues should be addressed.

The second respondent that indicated neutral answers indicated statement 6 and statement 12.

According to this respondent, the most important aspect in an organisation is the processes that should be performed. The people are only there to perform certain tasks and duties in the workplace. If they do not buy into a process, they still have the responsibility to perform as is expected of them.

Furthermore, this respondent indicated that it is impossible for any organisation to acknowledge every person in the organisation's values, as is

required in statement 12. The respondent felt that this statement was irrelevant and would have no influence on a change intervention.

- Pillar 5: The policy

All of the respondents agreed with all of the statements in this section.

1. Policies stipulating the necessary conduct regarding the process and procedures should be formulated and these policies should be honoured.
2. It is important to align these policies with the principles of the King Report (III) on corporate governance pertaining to responsible leadership and ethical conduct.

It can be concluded that most of the neutral statements and the statements of disagreement were recorded at Pillar 1: The process and Pillar 2: The procedures. The only statement that was indicated by four respondents was statement 6 of Pillar 2. These respondents are of opinion that the receiver in the change process cannot always be regarded as most important in the process. As stated earlier in this chapter, this is contrary to what is stated in the literature, (see 4.5.1) regarding effective change management communication.

To conclude the research section, feedback from the respondent validation was considered and verified against the literature review. Although some respondents indicated neutrality and disagreement, their input was refuted by the literature. It was therefore decided to present the developed framework in its original format.

5.8 SUMMARY

This chapter provided insight into the way in which the respondents of this study experienced the communication during the change intervention. The data was coded and categorised into themes and interpreted against the background of the literature review done. Surprising to note, was the

prominence of communication inefficiencies that became apparent from the data. It was stated at the beginning of this study that several factors could have contributed to the fact that the transformation goals set for the residences have not been fully achieved. However, from the data reported in this chapter it is clear that the communication during the process was a major area of concern. Due to the descriptive nature of the qualitative enquiry this chapter yielded rich data. Six main themes were identified and several concepts and constructs from the data were used to elaborate these themes.

Five pillars were identified to provide a rational context in which the main themes could be incorporated. The five pillars, together with the indicators provided for each pillar, formed the theoretical communication framework that was presented to the respondents for validation. Although feedback was provided through the validation process, the motivation for the changes was not substantiated by the literature and therefore the framework remains unchanged.

In the following chapter, conclusions and recommendations based on the results reported in this chapter will be provided.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

From the information provided in the previous chapters it has been established that communicating change is a difficult task and when considering the high percentage of failed change management efforts, it seems essential that organisations direct more attention to the specifics of change implementation (Stragalas 2010:31). Change in organisations is implemented and sustained through human communication. Throughout this study it became evident that the communicative role of leadership during a change effort is essential for the success of any change intervention. The importance of considering the context within which the change occurs should also not be neglected. As the implementation of the diversity policy by the UFS was not as successful as was hoped for, it gave rise to the research problem addressed in this study. The primary objective of this study was to recommend a theoretical communication framework with indicators to management that can contribute towards more effective communication during the process of communicating changes in junior female residences at the UFS. In this chapter the primary objective of the study is addressed.

In the rest of this chapter, conclusions drawn from the research data discussed in chapter 5 will be provided, and recommendations will be made.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

In order to address the theoretical research question, and goal of the study, conclusions relating to the meta-theoretical, contextual, conceptual and normative research questions were drawn and discussed. This led to the formulation of a theoretical communication framework. In the next section each one of the objectives, and the primary research of the study will be dealt

with individually and conclusions and recommendations on each will be presented.

6.2.1 Conclusions regarding the racial integration process of junior female residences

The transformation policy was introduced to address the racial composition of residences on the UFS campus. The implementation of this policy was deemed high priority and the focus was, and still is on improving racial diversity in on-campus residences. The residence placement policy that existed before 2007 did not specify any diversity levels or goals for residences. The general aim of the proposed policy was to reach a minimum diversity level for all categories of residences with an approximate 50:50 mix within a 40% -60% interval. The goal was a diversity balance of roughly 50:50 for all junior and senior residences together. Unfortunately this goal has not been achieved. One can therefore conclude that the implementation of the policy failed to a certain extent due to numerous challenges, one of which might have been communication.

6.2.2 Conclusions regarding the dimensions of a contemporary organisation impacted by change

An organisation is described as a complex set of systems and sub-systems that interact with each other, within an existing environment. Changing conditions pose a particularly strong challenge to contemporary organisations. Different dimensions, in which concepts and constructs are embedded, are identified in contemporary organisations. These dimensions include the intrapersonal, interpersonal, organisational, and the environmental dimensions. From the overview provided in chapter 3 it can be derived that one can differentiate between two broad levels, namely the **macro- and micro-levels of an organisation**. At the micro level the focus is on the human component of an organisation and the unit of analysis is the individual or group. The macro-level perspective focuses on the organisation as a

whole. It can be concluded that when change initiatives are undertaken it is essential that all the different dimensions are taken into consideration. Regardless of an organisation's size or purpose, people are the common denominator of organised behaviour. The contemporary perspective on an organisation was followed as change is a response by the organisation to increasingly **complex environments** that cannot assume a repetitive or routinised form. Furthermore, the contemporary perspective to organisations was followed as it also highlights the importance of managing **intangible assets** such as social capital.

6.2.3 Conclusions regarding the fundamental components of change management communication

From the variety of perspectives on change, it was concluded that the change explored in this study can be referred to as **revolutionary change** as it was dramatic and intended to alter the nature of the organisation. This revolutionary change is episodic or discontinuous because the residences experienced periods of divergence as the UFS was moving away from its state of equilibrium.

The ideal approach to the change referred to here is described as **third order change**, as it requires a substantial "stepping back" approach, supplemented by strong reflective capabilities and the ability to view and approach the schema from a different perspective. However, in this study it became evident that a much more traditional approach to change management was followed. The data indicates that a top-down approach where most control was held by a few decision makers and little or no power of influence by frontline employees were used.

When communicating change, multiple perspectives should be considered and higher levels of empathy towards employees should be developed. Approaching change from a **holistic point of view** is essential. It can be construed that **two-way interactive communication** where open dialogue, feedback and active listening are employed, should form the basis of

communication during a change intervention. Therefore the use of participatory communication that invites input from stakeholders is essential.

6.2.4 Conclusions regarding the ideal manner in which to communicate change in a contemporary organisational context

Communication processes and organisational implementation are inextricably linked processes. In these processes **authentic communication** involves the ability to communicate clear objectives, to be consistent, and to ensure that others understand and are aware of the reasons and intentions of the change. It can be concluded that the importance of authentic communication in **leadership communication** cannot be accentuated enough. The management of trust, the management of attention and the management of meaning are important competencies that leaders should possess. Another important factor that has to be taken into account is the role that leaders have to play in **sensemaking**. The leaders make sense of complexity and uncertainty on the basis of strong moral beliefs and an emotional engagement to others. Such effective communication during change is a means to create community in the organisation. As discussed in chapter 4 (see 4.3) some of the guidelines for effective change communication are the customisation of the message, the tone of the message, to practice what you preach, and the use of correct media to communicate. Participation and collaboration through a two-way process of communication are also deemed essential. It is clear that without communication there can be no management. Effective communication is grounded in the culture of an organisation, as well as the character of the leader. Leadership messages are therefore of strategic importance.

In the literature a clear distinction is being made between transactional and transformational leadership. In chapter 4 (see 4.4.6), transformational leadership is referred to as leadership that is able to facilitate a redefinition of people's mission and vision, a renewal of their commitment and the restructuring of their systems for goal accomplishment. From this it can be

deducted that **transformational leaders** are necessary to direct change initiatives as they are described as confident leaders that have a clear vision, engage in unconventional behavior, and act as change agents while remaining realistic about environmental constraints. Transformational leaders further exemplify charismatic personalities that can be described as charismatic, visionary, intellectual stimulating, engaging and inspirational.

It can be concluded that these aspects can be considered as the norm for effective change communication in a contemporary organisation.

6.2.5 Conclusions regarding communication during the integration of diverse cultures in junior female residences at the UFS

The research results clearly indicated that many problems were experienced with communication during the integration of the junior female residences at the UFS. From the data it became evident that a specific area of concern pertained to the communication management approach that was followed. It seems as if essential elements like **organisational culture** and **climate**, and the **human factor** did not receive the necessary attention. The management of change and the accompanying consultative process were also experienced negatively by most of the respondents. To add to this, the organisational structure also did not continuously provide the necessary support to the people that had to implement the change process.

The **communication approach** seemed problematic as basic communication principles were not always followed during the process and communication was sometimes totally absent. The lack of feedback together with conflicting messages received from management, as well as the absence of interpersonal communication skills by change communicators added to the problem. Top-down communication seemed to be the norm. Furthermore, a silo approach to communication was also followed. Lateral communication between some management staff and between different divisions was found lacking.

The literature indicates that **organisational culture and climate** play an important role in the successful implementation of change. An organisation with a strong culture creates an environment where employees feel nurtured and valued (see 3.3.4). Based on the research results, it can be concluded that at the time of the study, respondents experienced the culture and climate of the UFS as very negative. Respondents reported that the few training initiatives that did take place were conducted extremely unprofessionally. On an emotional level the climate was experienced as threatening and abusive. Furthermore the organisation was polarised by active political involvement and activities. The respondents felt that the culture was politically driven and that most strategic decisions, such as the integration of the residences, were informed by political agendas. As a result, integration was experienced as forced. As such, a client responsive culture which is indicative of a successful organisation, was absent (see 3.3.4.1 and 3.3.4.2). The climate was further experienced as negative as no relationship of trust existed between staff members and students on the one hand and management on the other. Du Plooy-Cilliers (2003:135) refers to this type of communication climate as a **defensive communication climate**.

The implementation of change in any organisation poses many challenges. Therefore the proper **management of the change** process is extremely important (as discussed in 4.5). According to the respondents this was another area where problems were encountered. It was reported that the process was not focused, no direction was provided in the change process and activities were repeated without any progress. The process commenced without key role players' understanding and insight into the scope, dynamics and complexity of the environment. As a result of the lack of planning, the process seemed disorganised and too many changes were attempted at once. The practical implications of the process were also not considered. This led to many crisis situations that had to be managed under pressure. Other issues that arose included the absence of proper consultation, and the lack of transparency and feedback.

Following the inefficiencies identified in the process, the important **role of leadership** surfaced. A serious lack of leadership communication skills was identified. Leadership was described as unapproachable, non-transparent, and unprofessional in their conduct. They were autocratic and undermined the authority of staff members. Respondents reported that leadership was inconsistent, could not be trusted and double standards prevailed. Furthermore leadership was experienced as lacking expertise, being absent, and not acknowledging cultural differences between staff members. Strained relationships between leadership and employees were common because of serious distrust on both sides. Respondents felt that they were left to their own devices and received no support from leadership. The success achieved by some of the residence staff groups was also not recognised.

As indicated in chapter 4 (see 4.6) the **consultative intervention** can assist in creating a platform where open communication and dialogue are stimulated. Consultation should also contribute towards a context in which the human factor is acknowledged and respected. However, the consultation experienced by the respondents reflected a totally different picture. The consultants were described as disrespectful, unapproachable, and uninformed. In contrast to what has been described in the literature as effective consultative communication, the respondents to this study experienced communication as openly one-sided, ineffective and without insight as the content was not well thought through. The consultants did not listen to input from participants and input was often disregarded. Great frustration was experienced with the facilitation of the process. Most of the respondents from the residence management group reported that when respondents did not agree with the consultant they were treated with disrespect. The consultant's conduct made respondents feel unsafe, frustrated and discontented. The appointment of the consultants created certain expectations with staff members, as it seemed as if the respondents were eventually going to be able to state their point of view and be listened to. According to the respondents from the residence management group they were however disillusioned very early on in the process. This might have

resulted in the fact that the consultants were incapable of securing everybody's buy-in into the process.

Last but not least, the **human factor** in change communication proved to be an important factor in the success of the process. As stated in chapter 3 (see 3.5) an organisation is constituted, enacted, and exists through the interaction of the people who constitute it at any point in time. In this study the respondents indicated and were adamant that the human factor was totally disregarded. Respondents reported feelings of despair, helplessness, frustration, humiliation and deceit. This gave rise to individuals being inhibited as they were constantly criticised or attacked personally. The impact of change on individuals were not regarded as important while the Social Identity Theory in chapter 3 (see 3.5.1) proposes that people's psychological connections to their teams, professions, and organisations contribute to and enhance a positive sense of self.

The data discussed in the previous section, was organised according to five pillars, connected to the main themes from the research. This, together with the concepts and constructs identified in the data, formed the preliminary theoretical communication framework that was validated by the respondents.

Based on the conclusions drawn and discussed in the previous section, recommendations were identified that are discussed in the rest of this chapter.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

After respondent validation of the preliminary framework, the following theoretical communication framework with indicators to manage change communication is recommended:

6.3.1 The process – Pillar 1

With regard to the process the following aspects are indicative of success:

- An evaluation of the nature, scope and context of the change intervention that must be communicated should be regarded as the first step in the process

- Change should be approached from a holistic perspective
- The most relevant components of the different approaches to change management should be identified and combined according to the context specific requirements
- A theoretical background on the nature, reasons of, and mechanisms for the change should be developed
- Change should be approached as a consultative process
- The macro-rational- and micro-emotional levels of change should be implemented simultaneously
- A strong organisational culture and positive climate should be created
- Clients' needs should be taken into consideration during the change process
- The quality of the process should be regarded as important
- Change should be implemented systematically.

6.3.2 Procedures – Pillar 2

Procedures that should be in place to enhance the quality of the communication during change are:

- Adequate resources to assist with the implementation and to support the process should be in place
- The formulation of planned and purposeful communication strategies to direct behaviour and motivate participants are essential
- The micro-emotional level in change management should be adequately managed to ensure that the human component receives preference in the process
- Channels that accommodate two-way communication should be established and should receive precedence as it enables feedback

- A combination of top-down and bottom-up involvement should be encouraged
- In change management the receiver should be considered the most important participant in the process
- Practical implications of decisions should be considered before implementation of such decisions
- Professional training should be provided at all levels of the organisation to enhance the organisational culture
- The implementation of too many changes at once should be avoided.
- Wide-scale consultation should take place.

6.3.3 The people – Pillar 3

The people in charge of the change process should demonstrate effective interpersonal communication skills. The change agents should:

- Be competent communicators that are approachable, transparent in conduct, and possess basic management skills
- Be consistent in their conduct
- Be open to dialogue
- Listen with an open mind
- Take emotions into consideration as aspects such as fear, frustration, despair and anxiety could impede on the effectiveness of the communicative process
- Encourage individuals to engage in open communication
- Value relationships of mutual trust and respect
- Establish a culture of support
- Acknowledge individual differences
- Manage the process without preconceived ideas and unbiased

- Realise that strong leadership is necessary in a changing environment.

6.3.4 The principles – Pillar 4

Principles that will guide the ethical conduct during the change process include:

- Acknowledgement of cultural differences
- Practicing of two-way communication
- Establishing a relationship of trust
- Underwriting values such as fairness, trustworthiness, honesty and integrity
- Genuinely starting from the point of view of the other
- Including the four areas of great leadership – envisioning, enabling, energising and focusing
- To achieve buy-in from the receiver whom are most affected by the changes
- Communicating clearly
- Having no hidden agendas
- Communicating timely, consistent and accurately
- Making use of rich channels of communication such as face-to-face techniques
- Acknowledging the personal values of all participants
- Recognition of success during the process should be seen as important
- Objectivity towards all participants in the change process is essential
- Non-verbal communication should at all times enhance the verbal communication.

6.3.5 The policy – Pillar 5

Policies stipulating the necessary conduct regarding the process and procedures should be formulated and these policies should be honoured. It is important to align these policies with the principles of the King Report (III) on corporate governance pertaining to responsible leadership and ethical conduct.

6.4 INDICATORS RECOMMENDED FOR MORE EFFECTIVE CHANGE MANAGEMENT COMMUNICATION

To contextualise the recommendations within a communication framework against the background of the four dimensions impacted by change, the following table (table 6.1) is provided to highlight the indicators identified that could contribute towards more effective change management communication.

Theoretical communication framework element	Indicators of successful change communication	Most prominent element of communication process	Organisational level most affected
Process	Evaluate change process	Communicator	All dimensions
	Follow holistic approach	Communicator / Context	All dimensions
	Provide theoretical background for process	Communicator	Interpersonal dimension

	Follow consultative process	Feedback	Interpersonal dimension
	Consider macro-rational + micro-emotional levels	Message / Receiver	All dimensions
	Cultivate a strong org. culture and positive climate	Context / Communicator	Organisational dimension
	Consider client needs	Receiver	Intrapersonal dimension
	Ensure process quality	Communicator / message	Interpersonal dimension
	Systematic implementation	Context/message/channels	Organisational dimension
Procedures	Adequate resources	Context	All dimensions
	Planned and purposeful communication	Communicator / message/ Receiver / Channels	Interpersonal dimension

Theoretical communication framework element	Indicators of successful change communication	Most prominent element of communication process	Organisational level most affected
	Consider micro-emotional level	Communicator / receiver	Interpersonal / Intrapersonal dimensions
	Channels should accommodate two-way communication	Channels / Feedback	Organisational dimension
	Encourage involvement	Channels / Feedback	Organisational dimension
	Receiver important	Receiver	Interpersonal dimension
	Consider practical implications	Message / Context	All dimensions
	Professional training	Message	Interpersonal dimension
	Not too many changes at once	Communicator / Message	Interpersonal dimension
People	Competent communicator	Communicator	Interpersonal dimension
	Consistent in conduct	Communicator	Interpersonal

	Open to dialogue	Feedback	Interpersonal
	Listening skills	Communicator / receiver	Intrapersonal and Interpersonal dimensions
	Consider emotions	Communicator / Message	Interpersonal dimension
	Engage in open communication	Communicator / Receiver	Intrapersonal and Interpersonal dimensions
	Value relationships of trust	Communicator / Receiver	Interpersonal dimension
	Establish culture of support	Communicator	Interpersonal dimension
	Acknowledge differences	Communicator / Receiver	Interpersonal dimension
	Unbiased management	Communicator	Interpersonal dimension
Principles	Acknowledge cultural differences	Communicator	Interpersonal dimension
	Practice two-way communication	Feedback	Interpersonal dimension
	Establish relationships of trust	Communicator	Interpersonal dimension

Theoretical communication framework element	Indicators of successful change communication	Most prominent element of communication process	Organisational level
			most affected
Principles (cont)	Underwrite values	Communicator	Interpersonal dimension
	Show empathy	Communicator	Interpersonal dimension
	Demonstrate leadership qualities	Communicator	Interpersonal dimension
	Achieve buy-in into process	Communicator	Interpersonal dimension
	Clear communication	Communicator / message	Interpersonal dimension
	No hidden agendas	Communicator	Intrapersonal dimension
	Timely, consistent and accurate communication	Communicator	Interpersonal dimension
	Objectivity essential	Communicator	Interpersonal dimension

Theoretical communication framework element	Indicators of successful change communication	Most prominent element of communication process	Organisational level most affected
	<p>Recognise success</p> <p>Use rich channels of communication</p> <p>Strong leadership</p> <p>Acknowledge personal values</p>	<p>Communicator</p> <p>Channels</p> <p>Communicator</p> <p>Communicator</p>	<p>Interpersonal dimension</p> <p>Interpersonal and organisational dimensions</p> <p>Interpersonal dimension</p> <p>Interpersonal dimension</p>
Policy	Based on indicators	All elements of communication process	All organisational dimensions impacted by change

6.5 THE POTENTIAL VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

The development of the theoretical framework with communication indicators may be helpful in addressing the partial failure of the implementation of the Residence Placement Policy (2008-2010). Although this study focussed on the female residences of the UFS, it may also be of value to other departments or the university as a whole.

These guidelines may also serve helpful to management of other educational institutions when attempting to implement change at their on-campus residences.

Due the generic nature of the indicators they might also be relevant to other organisational contexts and serve to assist management in the communication of a change initiative at their respective organisations.

Finally, as consultative intervention plays a prominent role in most change endeavours, the theoretical communication framework with the indicators provided might be useful as a guideline for consultants during the implementation of change.

6.6 VERIFICATION EMPLOYED IN THIS STUDY

Verification is the process of checking, confirming, making sure, and being certain. In qualitative research, verification refers to the mechanisms used during the process of research to incrementally contribute to ensuring reliability and validity and, thus the rigour of the study (Morse, Barret, Mayan, Olson, & Spiers 2002:9). Validity has to do with the truth value of observations, that is, whether the research instrument is being accurately reporting the nature of the object (Davmon & Holloway 2002:89). Reliability has to do with consistency of observations and whether the results can be reproduced consistently, every time it is applied (Davmon & Holloway 2002:80; Lindlof & Taylor, 2002:238). Davmon and Holloway (2002:92-95) is of opinion that qualitative research validity can be demonstrated by showing

relevance or authenticity and trustworthiness. Babbie and Mouton (2002:276) explain that qualitative studies need to focus on being objective through credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability.

As qualitative research is iterative, the researcher moved back and forth between design and implementation to ensure congruence among question formulation, literature, recruitment, data collection strategies and analysis. Data were systematically checked to maintain focus.

The researcher acknowledged the potential impact that she could have on the research outcome and therefore remained open, used sensitivity, creativity and insight and was willing to relinquish any ideas that were poorly supported regardless of the excitement and the potential that they initially appeared to provide. Verification strategies that ensured both reliability and validity of data such as ensuring methodological coherence, sampling sufficiency, developing a dynamic relationship between sampling, data collection and analysis, thinking theoretically and theory development were employed.

Congruence between the research question and the components of the method was ensured through methodological coherence. In other words, the question matched the method, which matched the data and the analytic procedures. An appropriate sample consisting of participants who had knowledge of the research topic and were involved in the change process was used. Efficient and effective saturation of categories were ensured by the use of this sample. Reliability and validity were attained by the iterative action between data and analysis.

The ideas that emerged from the data were reconfirmed in new data which were verified in data already collected. This theoretical thinking required macro-micro perspectives to build a solid foundation.

While moving with deliberation between a micro perspective of the data and a macro conceptual/theoretical understanding, the theoretical communication framework was developed through two mechanisms, namely, as an outcome of the research process and as a template for comparison and further development of the theory.

Finally, respondent validation was done to increase the credibility and validity of the study and to correct errors that could have been perceived as wrong interpretations (Cohen & Crabtree 2006). Respondents evaluate the proposed framework in order to assess the accuracy of the researcher's interpretation, and to minimise one-sidedness. The theoretical communication framework was submitted to the respondents for validation and input.

Together, all of these verification strategies contributed to reliability and validity of this study.

6.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The most obvious limitation of the study relates to the ability to draw descriptive or inferential conclusions from the sample data about a larger group. The research data reflect the communication that was present at a specific point in time and reflect the communication of certain individuals that was part of communicating the process. Therefore some of the indicators might not be relevant to other contexts.

6.8 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The aim of this study was to formulate a theoretical communication framework that will provide indicators for more effective communication when implementing change in the cultural composition in junior female residences at the UFS. The focus was therefore on the communicator of the change message.

This study can serve as a pilot study for further in-depth research. Other research can follow and evaluate a similar line of thinking by investigating the communicative role of other role players in change situations, such as the communication role and responsibilities of the employees during a change intervention.

As was highlighted throughout this study, the organisation's culture has a great impact on change communication. This aspect could be explored in more depth.

The impact of culture on the way in which different cultural groups perceive a message during a change intervention can also be a worthwhile field of study.

Although the King Report (III) on Corporate Governance is acknowledged in this study, the touch points between the suggested framework and the King Report (III), (especially chapter 1 on Ethical Leadership) will make an interesting study.

The impact of ineffective change management communication on the emotional wellness of employees can also be investigated.

Finally, the scope of this study only covered the first three circles of the Mitroff model, namely (Reality problem solving, Conceptual model and Scientific model) and the paths (Conceptualisation 1 and Modeling 2) that connects them. In a further study the next paths (Model solving, Feedback, Validation and Implementation) and the fourth circle (Solving) can be explored by testing the theoretical communication framework provided in practice.

6.9 FINAL COMMENT

It is evident that contemporary organisations need to change as part of their evolution. The importance of the contemporary organisation as a learning organisation cannot be emphasised enough as only constantly learning organisations will be able to deal with the demands of the rapidly changing environment.

Change has an impact on all four dimensions of an organisation, namely the environmental-, organisational-, interpersonal-, and intrapersonal dimensions. Furthermore, as the grand theory that this study is based on, is the general systems theory, the systems thinking perspective is adopted in which an organisation is seen as a dynamic living system consisting of sub-systems that influence and are influenced by one another. The philosophical

foundation that this study, is based on is constructivism, as constructivism is a dynamic social process in which individuals actively construct meaning from their experiences in connection with their prior understandings and social settings. The implementation of change in an organisation should therefore be viewed from a holistic perspective.

Change initiatives are often unsuccessful, primarily due to a lack of effective communication. Communication has been described as the lifeblood of any organised endeavour. The integrated approach to communication where different aspects of communication are combined in one strategy is regarded as the future of effective organisations. Organisational communication firstly has the function of informing employees about their tasks and policies, as well as other issues in the organisation. Secondly, it is a means to create community in the organisation. Elving and Hansma (2008:1) opine that the success of organisational change, largely depend on the informative and communicative skills of management at all levels. As stated before, communication is vital to the implementation of change. Communication processes and organisational change implementation are inextricably linked processes. The establishment of a culture of commitment to communication can go a long way in assisting successful change implementation. Without communication there can be no management as communication sets the tone for forging relationships of trust and respect. Communication with employees should be an integrative part of change efforts and strategies. Therefore, leadership at all hierarchical levels of the organisation has the responsibility to communicate about the change, and persuade the workforce to make the necessary changes. It is important that employees receive clear signals about what is important in the organisation and how these changes will be approached.

The importance of the human element as referred to in the micro-rational level of an organisation must not be underestimated as organisations are constituted and enacted by the people who constitute them at any point in time. Major changes in an organisation cannot be successful without the participation and collaboration of the organisation's employees and a

consideration of the needs of stakeholders, as it is the employees that must implement the changes in their respective divisions and departments.

The important communicative role of the transformational leader as change agent has a great influence on the outcomes of change initiatives. Robbins (1987:398-406) predicts that the communication in organisations will continue to become more complex, forcing leaders to evaluate their communication effectiveness. The use of clear and open communication where listening and verbalising are equally important and communication is viewed as a transaction is essential. Changing the culture of an organisation is one of the first steps in the change process. Change initiatives needs to be communicated in a way that allows individuals to initially come to terms with the changes. The macro-rational level of change that refers to the organisation as a whole should ideally be integrated with the micro-level in order to prevent a technical approach that gives the impression that there is a lack of concern for the human element in the change process.

The competencies of effective change agents are described as clarity of goals, the specification of goals, communication skills, negotiation skills, and “influencing skills” in order to gain commitment to goals, as well as team building activities. Throughout this study it became apparent that trust in top management had a significant influence on the support of change. The most frequently used tactics for effectively managing change are engagement of employees and encouragement of participation. Another important factor that has to be taken into account is the role that leaders have to play in sense-making. The important role of internal communication and the use of the appropriate communication media are also essential. The value of “rich” media such as face-to face communication cannot be stressed enough. The construction of meaning takes place through social interaction, the role of bottom-up communication and leaders that are prepared to listen to subordinates are also essential.

It became evident from this study that communication problems were experienced between management and the staff that had to implement the process. The need for a communication framework with indicators that can

be used during the implementation of a change process was established and subsequently a communication framework was developed. This framework may serve useful in providing communication guidelines that can be used during the implementation of a change initiative.

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Appendix A



Gedetailleerde Besettingslys van: Main Campus Junior soos op: 19/04/2010

Last revision date: 05 Jan 2010

Koshuis Naam	Totale kapsiteit	Totale Besetting	Aantal oop	Geslagsverdeling		Rasse verdeling			
				Aantal mans	Aantal dames	Aantal Swartes	Aantal Kleurlinge	Aantal Indiërs	Aantal Blankes
	Geslote kamers	% Besetting	% Onbeset	% Mans	% Dames	% Swart	% Kleurling	% Indiër	% Blank
Abraham Fischer	120	117	3	116	1	10	11	0	96
	0	97,50%	2,50%	99,15%	0,85%	8,55%	9,40%	0 %	82,05%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Akasia	179	175	4	0	175	155	13	4	3
	0	97,77%	2,23%	0 %	100,00%	88,57%	7,43%	2,29%	1,71%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Armentum	164	159	5	159	0	51	9	0	99
	0	96,95%	3,05%	100,00%	0 %	32,08%	5,66%	0 %	62,26%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Emily Hobhouse	155	154	1	1	153	48	9	1	96
	0	99,35%	0,65%	0,65%	99,35%	31,17%	5,84%	0,65%	62,34%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
JBM Hertzog	175	173	2	172	1	26	19	0	128
	0	98,86%	1,14%	99,42%	0,58%	15,03%	10,98%	0 %	73,99%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Karee	159	159	0	158	1	52	3	1	103
	0	100,00%	0 %	99,37%	0,63%	32,70%	1,89%	0,63%	64,78%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Kestell	120	118	2	0	118	111	4	1	2
	0	98,33%	1,67%	0 %	100,00%	94,07%	3,39%	0,85%	1,69%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Khayalami	179	177	2	177	0	159	11	1	6
	0	98,88%	1,12%	100,00%	0 %	89,83%	6,21%	0,56%	3,39%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Madelief	179	177	2	0	177	164	7	3	3
	0	98,88%	1,12%	0 %	100,00%	92,66%	3,95%	1,69%	1,69%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
N.J. van der Merwe	161	160	1	0	160	137	4	1	18
	0	99,38%	0,62%	0 %	100,00%	85,63%	2,50%	0,63%	11,25%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Roosmaryn	239	237	2	0	237	82	9	1	145
	0	99,16%	0,84%	0 %	100,00%	34,60%	3,80%	0,42%	61,18%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Soetdoring	188	184	4	1	183	53	14	2	115
	0	97,87%	2,13%	0,54%	99,46%	28,80%	7,61%	1,09%	62,50%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Tswelopele	181	179	2	179	0	165	5	0	9
	0	98,90%	1,10%	100,00%	0 %	92,18%	2,79%	0 %	5,03%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Vergeet-my-Nie	217	215	2	0	215	54	22	0	139
	0	99,08%	0,92%	0 %	100,00%	25,12%	10,23%	0 %	64,65%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)

Koshuis Naam	Totale kapsiteit	Totale Besetting	Aantal oop	Geslagsverdeling		Rasse verdeling			
				Aantal mans	Aantal dames	Aantal Swartes	Aantal Kleurlinge	Aantal Indiërs	Aantal Blankes
				% Mans	% Dames	% Swart	% Kleurling	% Indiër	% Blank
Villa Bravado	163	160	3	160	0	141	8	0	11
	0	98,16%	1,84%	100,00%	0 %	88,13%	5,00%	0 %	6,88%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Wag-n-Bietjie	205	204	1	0	204	63	9	1	131
	0	99,51%	0,49%	0 %	100,00%	30,88%	4,41%	0,49%	64,22%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Welwitschia	177	175	2	0	175	133	10	1	31
	0	98,87%	1,13%	0 %	100,00%	76,00%	5,71%	0,57%	17,71%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)
Groot totaal:	2961	2923	38	1123	1800	1604	167	17	1135
	0	98,72%	1,28%	38,42%	61,58%	54,88%	5,71%	0,58%	38,83%
									Onbekende ras: 0 (0,00%)

Detailed Occupancy report of: Main Campus on: 28/02/2010

Residence Name	Total Capacity	Total Occupancy	Number of vacancies	Occupation by gender		Occupation by Race				
				Number of Males	Number of Females	Number of Blacks	Number of Coloureds	Number of Indians	Number of Whites	
				% Male	% Female	% Black	% Coloured	% Indian	% White	
Room Closures	% Occupancy	% Vacancies								
Main Campus										
Main Campus Junior										
Abraham Fischer	120	117	3	116	1	10	11	0	96	
	0	97,50%	2,50%	99,15%	0,85%	8,55%	9,40%	0 %	82,05%	Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Akasia	179	173	6	0	173	153	13	4	3	
	0	96,65%	3,35%	0 %	100,00%	88,44%	7,51%	2,31%	1,73%	Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Armentum	164	159	5	159	0	51	9	0	99	
	0	96,95%	3,05%	100,00%	0 %	32,08%	5,66%	0 %	62,26%	Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Emily Hobhouse	155	155	0	0	155	48	9	1	97	
	0	100,00%	0 %	0 %	100,00%	30,97%	5,81%	0,65%	62,58%	Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
JBM Hertzog	175	171	4	170	1	26	18	0	127	
	0	97,71%	2,29%	99,42%	0,58%	15,20%	10,53%	0 %	74,27%	Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Karee	159	158	1	157	1	52	3	1	102	
	0	99,37%	0,63%	99,37%	0,63%	32,91%	1,90%	0,63%	64,56%	Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Kestell	119	113	6	0	113	106	4	1	2	
	0	94,96%	5,04%	0 %	100,00%	93,81%	3,54%	0,88%	1,77%	Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Khayalami	179	177	2	177	0	159	11	1	6	
	0	98,88%	1,12%	100,00%	0 %	89,83%	6,21%	0,56%	3,39%	Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Madelief	179	177	2	0	177	164	7	3	3	
	0	98,88%	1,12%	0 %	100,00%	92,66%	3,95%	1,69%	1,69%	Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
N.J. van der Merwe	161	154	7	0	154	131	4	1	18	
	0	95,65%	4,35%	0 %	100,00%	85,06%	2,60%	0,65%	11,69%	Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Roosmaryn	239	238	1	0	238	82	9	1	146	
	0	99,58%	0,42%	0 %	100,00%	34,45%	3,78%	0,42%	61,34%	Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Soetdoring	188	186	2	1	185	53	14	2	117	
	0	98,94%	1,06%	0,54%	99,46%	28,49%	7,53%	1,08%	62,90%	Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)

Detailed Occupancy report of: Main Campus on: 28/02/2010

Residence Name	Total Capacity	Total Occupancy	Number of vacancies	Occupation by gender		Occupation by Race			
				Number of Males	Number of Females	Number of Blacks	Number of Coloureds	Number of Indians	Number of Whites
				% Male	% Female	% Black	% Coloured	% Indian	% White
Tswelopele	181	181	0	181	0	166	5	0	10
	0	100,00%	0 %	100,00%	0 %	91,71%	2,76%	0 %	5,52%
									Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Vergeet-my-Nie	217	217	0	0	217	54	23	0	140
	0	100,00%	0 %	0 %	100,00%	24,88%	10,60%	0 %	64,52%
									Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Villa Bravado	163	156	7	156	0	136	8	0	12
	0	95,71%	4,29%	100,00%	0 %	87,18%	5,13%	0 %	7,69%
									Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Wag-n-Bietjie	205	204	1	0	204	63	9	1	131
	0	99,51%	0,49%	0 %	100,00%	30,88%	4,41%	0,49%	64,22%
									Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Welwitschia	177	169	8	0	169	127	10	1	31
	0	95,48%	4,52%	0 %	100,00%	75,15%	5,92%	0,59%	18,34%
									Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Sub Total Main Campus Junior	2960	2905	55	1117	1788	1581	167	17	1140
	0	98,14%	1,86%	38,45%	61,55%	54,42%	5,75%	0,59%	39,24%
									Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Main Campus Senior									
Boomplaas	60	58	2	58	0	52	5	1	0
	0	96,67%	3,33%	100,00%	0 %	89,66%	8,62%	1,72%	0 %
									Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Eagles Nest-B	8	3	5	3	0	3	0	0	0
	0	37,50%	62,50%	100,00%	0 %	100,00%	0 %	0 %	0 %
									Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Eagles Nest-C	7	5	2	5	0	5	0	0	0
	0	71,43%	28,57%	100,00%	0 %	100,00%	0 %	0 %	0 %
									Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Karee Annex	22	22	0	22	0	22	0	0	0
	0	100,00%	0 %	100,00%	0 %	100,00%	0 %	0 %	0 %
									Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Kiepersol	29	29	0	29	0	29	0	0	0
	0	100,00%	0 %	100,00%	0 %	100,00%	0 %	0 %	0 %
									Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Madelief Annex	21	20	1	0	20	18	1	1	0
	0	95,24%	4,76%	0 %	100,00%	90,00%	5,00%	5,00%	0 %
									Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)
Marula	36	34	2	0	34	31	1	0	2
	0	94,44%	5,56%	0 %	100,00%	91,18%	2,94%	0 %	5,88%
									Unknown race: 0 (0,00%)

Integration Status in Junior Residences as on 16 February 2009

Residence	Capacity	Renewals	Renewed students that were placed in 2008			First year capacity for 2009			First Years in Residences									Possible Vacancies		
			Total	Black	White	Total	Black	White	Total	Black	% of First Years	% First Years of Capacity	30/70 Division	White	% of First Years	% First Years of Capacity	30/70 Division	Total	Black	White
Black Female Residences																				
Akasia	179	104	40	40	0	75	41	34	37	37	100%	49%	67%	0	0%	0%	0%	38	4	34
Kestell	120	75	32	32	0	45	22	23	24	24	100%	53%	73%	0	0%	0%	0%	21	-2	23
Madelief	179	99	37	36	1	80	46	34	52	51	98%	64%	74%	1	2%	1%	2%	28	-5	33
N.J. van der Merwe	161	94	37	36	1	67	37	30	36	35	97%	52%	68%	1	3%	1%	2%	31	2	29
Welwitschia	177	116	44	41	3	61	33	28	33	33	100%	54%	70%	0	0%	0%	3%	28	0	28
Subtotal	816	488	190	185	5	328	179	149	182	180	99%	55%	70%	2	1%	1%	1%	146	-1	147
Black Male Residences																				
Khayalami	179	86	38	38	0	93	54	39	29	28	97%	30%	50%	1	3%	1%	1%	64	26	38
Tswelopele	181	122	60	60	0	59	23	36	45	25	56%	42%	71%	20	44%	34%	17%	14	-2	16
Villa Bravado	163	107	51	51	0	56	24	32	28	26	93%	46%	72%	2	7%	4%	2%	28	-2	30
Subtotal	523	315	149	149	0	208	101	107	102	79	77%	38%	64%	23	23%	11%	6%	106	22	84
Subtotal Black Residences	1339	803	339	334	5	536	280	256	284	259	91%	48%	68%	25	9%	5%	3%	252	21	231
White Female Residences																				
Emily Hobhouse	155	110	64	24	40	45	9	36	44	7	16%	16%	28%	37	84%	82%	71%	1	2	-1
Roosmaryn	239	159	79	22	57	80	26	54	78	22	28%	28%	28%	56	72%	70%	71%	2	4	-2
Soetdoring	188	129	74	18	56	59	22	37	59	20	34%	34%	29%	39	66%	66%	71%	0	2	-2
Vergeet-my-Nie	217	158	71	21	50	59	18	41	59	16	27%	27%	28%	43	73%	73%	72%	0	2	-2
Wag-n-Bietjie	205	130	68	20	48	75	23	52	73	21	29%	28%	29%	52	71%	69%	70%	2	2	0
Subtotal	1004	686	356	105	251	318	98	220	313	86	27%	27%	28%	227	73%	71%	71%	5	12	-7
White Male Residences																				
Abraham Fischer	121	87	32	5	27	34	15	19	34	10	29%	29%	23%	24	71%	71%	77%	0	5	-5
Armentum	161	99	54	10	44	62	25	37	57	18	32%	29%	24%	39	68%	63%	72%	5	7	-2
JBM Hertzog	155	117	52	12	40	38	15	23	34	8	24%	21%	22%	26	76%	68%	73%	4	7	-3
Karee	159	104	54	8	46	55	25	30	57	23	40%	42%	28%	34	60%	62%	73%	-2	2	-4
Subtotal	596	407	192	35	157	189	80	109	182	59	32%	31%	25%	123	68%	65%	73%	7	21	-14
Subtotal White Residences	1600	1093	548	140	408	507	178	329	495	145	29%	29%	27%	350	71%	69%	72%	12	33	-21
Total	2939	1896	887	474	413	1043	458	585	779	404				375				264	54	210

* The department has not received sufficient information from Khayalami or Villa Bravado to confirm vacancies

Eerstejaars in koshuise op 27 Februarie 2008 14:00

KOSHUIS	RAS	GESLAG	EERSTEJAARSKAPASITEIT			Eerstejaars									Moontlike Vakatures			
			100%	70%	30%	TOTAAL			EIE RAS			ANDER RAS			TOTAAL	EIE RAS	ANDER RAS	
						GETAL	% t.o.v. Kapasiteit	% in Koshuis	GETAL	% t.o.v. Kapasiteit	% in Koshuis	GETAL	% t.o.v. Kapasiteit	% in Koshuis				GETAL
a AKASIA	S	V	67	47	20	48	72%	100%	48	72%	100%	0	0%	0%	0%	19	-1	20
b KESTELL	S	V	51	36	15	43	84%	100%	43	84%	100%	0	0%	0%	8	-7	15	
c MADELIEF	S	V	60	42	18	48	80%	100%	47	78%	98%	1	2%	2%	12	-5	17	
d N.J. VAN DER MERWE	S	V	58	41	17	42	72%	100%	41	71%	98%	1	2%	2%	16	0	16	
e WELWITSCHIA	S	V	58	41	17	46	79%	100%	41	71%	89%	5	9%	11%	12	0	12	
f (a+b+c+d+e) SWART DAMESKOSHUISE			294	207	87	227	77%	100%	220	75%	97%	7	2%	3%	67	-13	80	
g KHAYALAMI	S	M	79	55	24	66	84%	100%	66	84%	100%	0	0%	0%	13	-11	24	
h TSWELOPELE	S	M	78	55	23	54	69%	100%	54	69%	100%	0	0%	0%	24	1	23	
i VILLA BRAVADO	S	M	80	56	24	48	60%	100%	48	60%	100%	0	0%	0%	32	8	24	
j (g+h+i) SWART MANSKOSHUISE			237	166	71	168	71%	100%	168	71%	100%	0	0%	0%	69	-2	71	
k (f+j) SUB TOTAAL: SWART KOSHUISE			531	373	158	395	74%	100%	388	73%	98%	7	1%	2%	136	-15	151	
m EMILY HOBHOUSE	W	V	68	48	20	66	97%	100%	46	68%	70%	20	29%	30%	2	2	0	
n ROOSMARYN	W	V	97	68	29	102	105%	100%	74	76%	73%	28	29%	27%	-5	-6	1	
o SOETDORING	W	V	78	56	22	78	100%	100%	56	72%	72%	22	28%	28%	0	0	0	
p VERGEET-MY-NIE	W	V	74	52	22	74	100%	100%	53	72%	72%	21	28%	28%	0	-1	1	
q WAG-N-BIETJIE	W	V	73	51	22	73	100%	100%	53	73%	73%	20	27%	27%	0	-2	2	
q (h+m+n+o+p) WIT DAMESKOSHUISE			390	275	115	393	101%	100%	282	72%	72%	111	28%	28%	-3	-7	4	
r ABRAHAM FISCHER	W	M	34	24	10	34	100%	100%	30	88%	88%	4	12%	12%	0	-6	6	
s ARMENTUM	W	M	81	57	24	78	96%	100%	59	73%	76%	19	23%	24%	3	-2	5	
t JBM HERTZOG	W	M	53	37	16	50	94%	100%	45	85%	90%	5	9%	10%	3	-8	11	
u KAREE	W	M	72	50	22	66	92%	100%	55	76%	83%	11	15%	17%	6	-5	11	
v REITZ	W	M	58	42	16	51	88%	100%	44	76%	86%	7	12%	14%	7	-2	9	
w (r+s+t+u+v) WIT MANSKOSHUISE			264	186	78	245	93%	100%	203	77%	83%	42	16%	17%	19	-17	36	
x (q+w) SUB TOTAAL: WIT KOSHUISE			654	461	193	638	98%	100%	485	74%	76%	153	23%	24%	16	-24	40	
y (k+x) TOTAAL: SWART + WIT KOSHUISE			1185	834	351	1033	87%	100%	873	74%	85%	160	14%	15%	152	-39	191	

Hierdie syfers is onderworpe aan verandering

Nota's:

1. Aantal swart mans eerstejaars in voorheen blanke koshuise geplaas, maar tydelik in swart koshuise: Armentum: 2; JBM Hertzog: 2; Karee: 3; Reitz: 5.

Appendix B

ELECTRONIC MAIL MESSAGE THAT WAS SENT TO RESPONDENTS

Dear Residence Head

Thank you for taking time to complete the attached questionnaire. My goal is to ensure that the feedback that I received from you during the in-depth interviews and focus group sessions was interpreted correctly. This will allow me to provide findings that are authentic and original.

Please take note of the following:

- The **macro-rational level** of change implementation refers to organisational systems, procedures and processes, while the **micro-emotional level** refers to the human element of the process (see Pillar 1, statement 6 and Pillar 2, statement 3).
- Where answers are indicated as **neutral** or **disagree**, reasons have to be supplied.
- All information is considered confidential.
- Should there be something that you do not understand, please feel free to contact me.

Thank you for your cooperation

Appendix C

	Pillar 2: Procedures	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	<i>Procedures that should be in place to enhance the quality of the communication during change are:</i>			
1	Adequate resources to assist with the implementation and to support the process should be in place			
2	The formulation of planned and purposeful communication strategies to direct behaviour and motivate participants are essential			
3	The micro-emotional level in change management should be adequately managed to ensure that the human component receives preference in the process			
4	Channels that accommodate two-way communication should be established and should receive precedence as it enables feedback			
5	A combination of top-down and bottom-up involvement should be encouraged			
6	In change management the receiver should be considered the most important participant in the process			
7	Practical implications of decisions should be considered before implementation of such decisions			
8	Professional training should be provided at all levels of the organisation to enhance the organisational culture			
9	The implementation of too many changes at once should be avoided.			
10	Wide-scale consultation should take place.			
	Please comment on statements that were marked neutral or disagree			

		Agree	Neutral	Disagree
	Pillar 4: The principles			
	<i>Principles that will guide the ethical conduct during the change process include:</i>			
1	Acknowledgement of cultural differences			
2	Practicing of two-way communication			
3	Establishing a relationship of trust			
4	Underwriting values such as fairness, trustworthiness, honesty and integrity			
5	Genuinely starting from the point of view of the other			
6	Including the four areas of great leadership – envisioning, enabling, energising and focusing			
7	To achieve buy-in from the receiver whom are most affected by the changes			
8	Communicating clearly			
9	Having no hidden agendas			
10	Communicating timely, consistent and accurately			
11	Making use of rich channels of communication such as face-to-face techniques			
12	Acknowledging the personal values of all participants			
13	Recognition of success during the process should be seen as important			
14	Objectivity towards all participants in the change process is essential			
15	Non-verbal communication should at all times enhance the verbal communication.			

		Agree	Neutral	Disagree
1	Policies stipulating the necessary conduct regarding the process and procedures should be formulated and these policies should be honoured.			
2	It is important to align these policies with the principles of the King Report (III) on corporate governance pertaining to responsible leadership and ethical conduct.			
	Please comment on statements that were marked neutral or disagree			